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ART. I. *Ancient and Modern Malta:* containing a full and accurate Account of the present State of the Islands of Malta and Goza, the History of the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, also a Narrative of the Events which attended the Capture of these Islands by the French, and their Conquest by the English: and an Appendix containing authentic State-Papers and other Documents. By Louis de Boisgelin, Knight of Malta. Illustrated with a large Chart of the Islands, Views, Portraits, Antiquities, &c. 4to. 2 Vols. 4l. 4s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1805.

AT any other period than the present, it might have been a hazardous speculation to have published two superb quarto volumes relative to the little island of Malta: but, considering the importance which that rock now possesses in the contemplation of the politician, and that it makes a prominent figure among the objects of the bloody contest now existing, it cannot fail to excite a peculiar degree of interest; and the inquisitive reader will be desirous of more minute information respecting it, than he would require under ordinary circumstances. It is easy to appreciate the value of Malta on the ground of its locality; as the key of the Levant, and as a kind of out-post to our Eastern dominions, it is devoutly to be wished that it may remain a permanent part of the British empire: but, if such an arrangement cannot finally be adopted, perhaps the next desirable measure for us and for the European states in general, would be to to cause its reversion in full sovereignty to its original proprietors; the most potent monarchs agreeing to guarantee to them this petty empire, and to assist them in carrying into effect their benevolent purposes. In the hands of the knights, Malta would become, what in strict justice it ought to be, a free port to all ships navigating the Mediterranean: but, in the possession of France, it would probably be converted into an object of annoyance and aggrandizement.

It is the design of the present historian to plead the cause neither of Great Britain nor of France, but to shew how much

his fraternity, from the very first institution of the order, have been intitled to universal admiration; what humanity, gallantry, the self-devotion they have displayed ever since the island of Malta was generously granted to them by the Emperor Charles V.; how much it prospered under their administration; the baseness and cruelty of the French in depriving them of it; and what benefits would accrue to Europe from its re-occupation by its former masters. We applaud the manly feeling which pervades M. Boisgelin's narrative; and though the darling object of his wishes is too much enveloped in clouds to allow us to cheer him with the hope of success, we may safely venture to assure him that few will read his pages without respecting the body to which he belongs, and lamenting that its possessions should have been engulphed in the dreadful vortex of the French Revolution.

If M. de Boisgelin displays the zeal and enthusiasm of a Knight of Malta, he writes also with ample knowlege of the subject which he discusses, and has inserted in his work every interesting particular respecting it. The picture includes a view of the situation, climate, population, and fertility of Malta and Goza; with accounts of the Maltese, and of the towns, ports, edifices, monuments, villages, curiosities, natural productions, &c. which are to be found in these islands. We are also presented with long details explanatory of the constitution and finances of the Order of Malta; and in the last place their interesting history is related from the time of their quitting Rhodes under the Grand Master L'Isle Adam, and their subsequent occupation of Malta by virtue of the grant made to them by the Emperor Charles V., to the period of their being invaded, plundered, and driven by the French from a spot which they had so long and so honourably occupied. In conclusion, he notices the exertions of Britain to expel her enemies from a position which it would not have been safe to have permitted them to retain.—To assist the understanding of the reader, we find an explanation of some terms peculiar to the order of Malta; and of the value of the money, weights, and measures used in this island, compared with those of England.

Of the antient history of Malta, scarcely any traces remain; and it is of little moment to inquire whether it was the Ogygia of Homer, (he does not call it Hyperia,) whether it was once inhabited by giants, and whether its present name was given to it by the Greeks in reference to its excellent honey, or by the Phœnicians, on account of its being a place of refuge. The importance of its situation, however, was known to the antient states bordering on the Mediterranean; the Carthaginians

disputing the possession of it with the Greeks, and the Romans with the Carthaginians. In after times, it became the property of the Goths, and of the Arabs; in 1090 it was taken by the Normans, who gave it up to the Germans, when it was erected into a county and marquisate; from the Germans, it passed to the French; from whom it was wrested by the Arragonians, and with Goza was finally added to the vast dominions of the Emperor Charles V. This monarch, as M. Boisgelin observes, being a 'politic prince whose prudence equalled his activity, considered these possessions in a very different light from his predecessors:

'To command the Mediterranean, to secure the coast of Sicily, to threaten that of Africa, and to interrupt at pleasure all commercial intercourse between the two seas in the centre of which they were placed, were objects of sufficient importance for Charles to be well aware of the great advantage of possessing these two islands. His policy alone would have induced him to profit by such a circumstance: but his foresight extended still farther; for fearing these important places might in future be taken from his successors, who, being obliged to attend to the centre of their dominions, or to the opposite confines, might not be able to keep a force sufficient for the defence of Malta and Goza—and at the same time reflecting of what importance such a conquest would be to his enemies in the political balance of Europe—he determined to place them in the hands of some power which would be particularly interested in preserving them; and which, without being able to annoy any other state, would be respected by all. Added to these considerations, he found it very advantageous to save the expence of 340,000 French livres, which his treasury was obliged to furnish for the maintenance of the different garrisons it was necessary to keep in the forts and castles of Malta, Goza, and Tripoly. He, in consequence, made choice of the order of St. John of Jerusalem: which, having been driven from its principal place of residence, had been wandering on the coast of Italy: and in 1530 he established the knights as perpetual sovereigns of the islands of Malta and Goza, together with the city of Tripoly.'

The object of the Emperor was completely answered in establishing the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem as the perpetual sovereigns of Malta and Goza; and from the period of their occupation, the strength and value of those islands have increased. It is gratifying to observe the exertions which were made by the members of this order on taking possession of their newly acquired territory; and the magnificent towns and fortifications, which soon sprang up, proved how much even small states might accomplish by economy, talents, and persevering industry. As warriors in defence of their only city, the Knights of St. John often rivalled the heroes of the Iliad in courage; and as a maritime state, their victories were at times as

brilliant, though not on so grand a scale, as those of Great Britain. La Valette's gallant defence of Malta, when it was besieged by a vast army of the Turks, has been repeatedly celebrated in history; and the knights on board their gallies and ships of war have, in their contests with the vessels of the Infidels, performed prodigies of valour.

We cannot coincide with this historian by subscribing to the necessity of all the rules and regulations of the order of St. John of Jerusalem, for carrying into effect the avowed object of its institution. It might be modelled on more liberal and general principles of Christianity, and be made more independent than it was in its former state, by better secured revenues: but, till the Knights have a nearer prospect of resuming its sovereignty than they appear to enjoy at present, we may save ourselves the trouble of farther discussing this subject.

Setting out of the question M. Boisgelin's motives for commencing author, we shall now advert to the facts and observations which are contained in his pages.

The situation of Malta is in North Lat. 35°, 44′,26″, and Long. 15°, 54′ East of London; it is in length 20 miles, and 12 broad; and it contains, besides the city of Valetta and its dependencies, 22 villages or *casals*, a name derived from the Arabian word *rahal*, signifying a station. In describing the fertility of the island, the Chevalier says that

'The ground in Malta is never suffered to remain uncultivated, but constantly sown every year. Each season yields its peculiar crop, and the produce is very abundant. The corn, in land of a middling quality, yields from sixteen to twenty for one; whilst that on good land affords thirty-eight, and on rich spots sixty-four. The island of Sicily is by no means equally fertile.

'The colour of the soil varies in the different districts of Malta, and it is seldom more than one foot deep above the surface of the rock: it is irrigated chiefly by the night dew; but the rock, being porous, retains the damp, and keeps the ground constantly fresh. The earth is always removed once in ten years, in order to clear the rock of a thick crust, which forms, and prevents the moisture from sufficiently penetrating.

'When the ground is properly prepared, it produces, the first year, water-melons and garden plants; the next, an excellent fruit, which is preserved during the winter, and distinguished by the name of Maltese melons; and afterwards barley, the straw of which furnishes fodder for the cattle. The ground is ploughed the third year, and planted with cotton; and the fourth sown with corn. The land afterwards yields these different crops alternately; but care is always taken to prepare the ground, particularly the year the cotton-tree is to come into bearing, when it is necessary to reduce the earth into a kind of powder.

'Three

'Three species of cotton are cultivated in Malta; one natural to the country, another from Siam, and the third of a cinnamon colour, called Antilles cotton*. These are all sown in the month of April, and the top of the plant is cut in the beginning of September, that the fruit may grow larger. It is gathered in October, when it begins to open, which is a sign that it is then sufficiently ripe. It is sown in the following manner: A hole some inches deep is made in the ground, which is afterwards filled with water, and when it is sufficiently soaked, the seed is put into it and covered over, without being watered again till it begins to shoot out of the ground. The plant presently grows to the height of ten to fifteen inches, and blooms in the month of August.

'Wheat is sown in November, after the ground has been ploughed three times, and cut in the beginning of June: barley likewise is sown in the former month, and reaped in May. There is a kind of corn in Malta called *tommon*, which grows in poor land, and the bread made of the flour is particularly white. This grain is sown in February.

'Each field is enclosed with walls to shelter the different plants from the effects of the wind, rain, and storms, during the spring and autumn.

'Necessity, the parent of industry, has taught the Maltese to make a sort of artificial land in the barren parts of the island. They begin by levelling the rock, which, however, they allow to incline a little, that all superabundant water may run off. They then heap together some stones broken into small pieces of an irregular form, which they place about a foot high, and cover with a bed of the same stones nearly reduced to powder. On this, they first place a bed of earth, brought either from other parts of the island, or taken out of the clifts of the rocks; then a bed of dung; and afterwards a second bed of earth: such, indeed, is the perseverance of the proprietors of this ground, that it becomes in time equally fertile with natural land.

'Malta and Goza produce fruits of exquisite flavour, excellent roots, and very fine flowers; the roses in particular are much sweeter scented than in any other country. These islands likewise yield great quantities of *comino*, *aniseed*, *kalimagnum*, *loricella*, *silla*, and *lichen*; this last plant grows on the rocks exposed to the north, and is used for dyeing the amaranthus colour. *Silla* is peculiar to Malta and Goza, and is of a better quality in the last-mentioned island. This plant grows to the height of five feet, and bears a red flower. Tournefort calls it *hedysarum clypeatum flore suaviter rubente*. It serves for fodder, is sown in June, and mowed in May. The same ground is

'* There are two other sorts of cotton cultivated in America, the one growing upon a kind of shrub, and the other on a large tree full of thorns. These species are mentioned by Bernardin de St. Pierre, but are not known in Malta. The cotton-tree in India is handsome, and grows to a great height: it shoots afresh during five years before there is a necessity of replanting it. That which grows in the Antilles must be planted every two years, and is not so tall as the former, but it produces very fine cotton of a beautiful yellow.'

afterwards sown with corn, and the following year the silla comes up again of itself: it likewise shoots out the third year, but has then lost all strength and quality.

'The gardens in Malta are generally ornamented with groves of orange and lemon teees; but these are not permitted to grow to any great height on account of the wind, which would blow off the fruit, and break the branches. The greatest attention is paid to the orange-trees, which are commonly watered twice a-day. Their tops are trimmed into a round form resembling an umbrella; and they grow on one single straight stem, as do likewise the lemon-trees, the branches of which are sometimes suffered to extend till they form a kind of bower. These trees are almost all raised in tubs, and placed in the most sheltered spots. Kitchen gardens are greatly encreased in Malta, and employ numbers of people: they produce vegetables of the finest quality. Water is constantly kept for their use in cisterns hewn out of the rock, and trenches are dug round them to collect the rain.

'A great many bees are kept in some parts of the island; the hives are horizontal, in the eastern style, and are much more easy of access than those of another form. The Maltese honey is very sweet, and has a most delicious flavour; it is reckoned an excellent digestive, and the ancients compared it to the honey of Hybla. Cicero likewise mentions it as being superior to that of any other country.'

Promising as is this account of its fertility, we are informed that Malta cannot furnish provision for the inhabitants; though, in addition to its vegetable produce, fish is very abundant on the coast. Its population is represented to have experienced a most rapid increase; and, in proportion to its extent, it is represented as having been, at the period of the French Invasion of it, the most populous spot in Europe. We shall transcribe the account, with the curious note annexed:

'Malta in 1530 did not contain quite fifteen thousand inhabitants, and these were reduced to ten thousand at the raising of the siege in the grand mastership of La Valette; during that of Omedes, Goza was entirely depopulated; and the plague in 1592 made terrible ravages on the island; notwithstanding which, by the census taken in 1632 the population of the two islands amounted to fifty-one thousand seven hundred and fifty. Since that time, the Maltese have been almost constantly at war; and great numbers were again destroyed by an infectious distemper in 1676; yet such was the increase of population, that in 1798 Malta contained ninety thousand, and Goza twenty-four thousand, inhabitants *.'

Such

'* The population of Europe is in the following proportion. On an equal space of ground on which there exists only one man in Iceland, there are

in Norway	3
in Sweden	14

in Turkey

Such a statement affords M. Boisgelin an opportunity for exultation, but his pleasure is embittered with a sigh:

'Where is the country, may I venture to ask, which can boast of such an increase, and such a continual state of prosperity? But the Maltese, who are naturally sober, require but little nourishment; besides, they were so perfectly contented with the mildness of a government which never taxed either the labour of their hands, or any other effort of industry, that they became too much attached to their country ever to leave it, well knowing that, in almost every other, both farmer and artificer were equally subject to burthensome taxes.

'A sovereign who expends his revenue in his dominions, must necessarily greatly increase the circulation of money, of which all his subjects must in some degree partake. This advantage, joined to the numerous institutions ever open to reward talents and industry, and at the same time to relieve the poor and unfortunate, so that idleness and poverty might be said to be unknown in Malta, rendered the inhabitants of that island but too happy under the government of the order; the opulence of which, alas! one moment served to destroy, together with the prosperity of the unfortunate Maltese!'

A short account of its trade is also given:

'The principal trade of the island consisted in cotton, the growth of the country, and which was of a much superior quality to that brought from the Levant. It was exported either in bales, worked up into cloths and coarse stuffs, or in its spun state. The greatest part was sent into Spain for the manufactures in Catalonia.

'The payments were made in piastres (pieces of eight), which the merchants sent to France, and there doubled their gains, by means of the profit they made in Malta on the different merchandises they brought from Marseilles.

'By a very accurate extract from the books of the custom-house of the grand-master, exhibiting the exact quantity of cotton spun in Malta from the year 1788 to 1798, it appears that there was usually exported every year to the value of 2,750,000 French livres. This, with the export of their manufactured goods, joined to their home

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in Turkey	36
in Poland	52
in Spain	63
in Ireland	99
in Switzerland . . .	114
in Great Britain . . .	119
in Germany	127
in England alone . . .	152
in France	153
in Italy	172
in the kingdom of Naples	192
in the Republic of Venice	196
in Holland	224
in Malta	1103

consumption, made the produce of the cotton in Malta and Goza amount to more than 3,000,000 French livres (125,000l. sterling).

'The other articles of commerce were but trifling, and consisted principally in ashes of *kalimagnum*, which the Maltese sent to Venice; *lichen*, which they sold in Sicily; oranges, sent to all parts of the world; orange-flower water, put into copper bottles tinned, and called *stagnone*; lemons; preserved apricots, distinguished by the name of *Alexandrini*; excellent pomegranates; honey, which always remains in a liquid state: seeds of different kinds; such as cabbage, brocoli, melon, cumin, and aniseed: kali of an excellent quality: and Maltese stone, which was a great article of commerce in Sicily, the Levant, and particularly at Smyrna. They likewise exported some pieces of fillagree, a sort of work in which the Maltese greatly excelled; also clocks, and boilers, which were as good and as lightly made as those from the Levant.

'If the profit arising from the sale of so many different articles appears very great, it must be considered, on the other hand, that the Maltese were under the necessity of importing corn, cloth, wood, wine, oil, brandy, &c. The natural productions of the island were, indeed, but very trifling in comparison with what they were forced to buy from other countries; and their profit from the above-mentioned articles would have been even insufficient to purchase grain for home consumption.

'It is a certain fact, that the corn grown in Malta would not furnish more than one third of the inhabitants with bread; we will therefore suppose that the islands of Malta and Goza contained a hundred thousand persons, and in that case it plainly appears that sixty-six thousand would have been absolutely destitute of food, had it not been for the corn imported from Sicily and other places.'

The Knight's motive in this representation is sufficiently obvious.—Our readers must excuse us, if we pass over in silence the catacombs, caves, and other curiosities of the island; and if we omit the several details of M. Boisgelin relative to Natural History, in order to afford room for the description of the Maltese, which, from a gentleman who has resided long in the island, may be supposed to be tolerably faithful:

'Their countenances announce an African origin. They are short, strong, plump, with curled hair, flat noses, turned up lips, and the colour of their skins is the same as that of the inhabitants of the states of Barbary: their language is also so nearly the same, that they perfectly understand each other.

'It is, perhaps, as much owing to the situation of Malta, as to the different strangers who have visited and conquered the island, that the Maltese have become very industrious, active, faithful, economical, courageous, and the best sailors in the Mediterranean. But, notwithstanding these good qualities, they still retain some of the defects generally attributed to the Africans; and are mercenary, passionate, jealous, vindictive, and addicted to thieving. They have likewise sometimes recalled the idea of the *Punica Fides*. They are fantasti

ca

cal and superstitious in the highest degree, but their ignorance does not unfit them for the cultivation of the arts.

'The Maltese habit (excepting that of the ecclesiastics, lawyers, and trades people, who dress in the French style, and are few compared to the people at large) consists of a large cotton shirt, and a waistcoat likewise very large, with silver, and sometimes gold, buttons; to these are added a *caban* and cloak reaching rather below the small of the back, and a very long girdle twisted several times round the waist, in which they constantly carry a knife in a sheath: they also wear long and full trowsers, with a sort of shoe called *korch*; but they do not often make use of the latter, having almost always both legs and feet entirely naked. This *korch* is merely a leathern sole, with strings to fasten it round the leg. They never wear hats, but blue, red, white, or striped caps. People of easy fortune usually carry fans in their hands, and wear blue or green glass spectacles; for such is the excessive heat occasioned by the reverberation of the rays of the sun from the stones, and white tufa, that, notwithstanding this precaution, there are many blind people; indeed the greatest number have very weak eyes.

'The Maltese are remarkably sober; a clove of garlic, or an onion, anchovies dipped in oil, and salt fish, being their usual diet. On great festivals, they eat pork. Hogs are very common in towns and villages; many of these animals belong to the church and to different convents, and walk about the streets both night and day, where they pick up sufficient nourishment. They are seldom molested, and never stolen.

'There are no people in the world more attached to their country than the Maltese; and their constant hope is to end their days in what they dignify with the title of *Fiore del Mondo* (The Flower of the World).

'The Maltese women are little, and have beautiful hands and feet. They have fine black eyes, though they sometimes appear to squint, owing to their always looking out of the same eye; half of the face being covered with a sort of veil made of black silk, called *faldetta*, which they twist about very gracefully, and arrange with much elegance. The women, even of the highest rank, unlike their husbands, constantly preserve their *costume;* and any one who should adopt the French fashion would make herself very ridiculous. They are extremely fond of gold and silver ornaments, and it is not uncommon to see even the peasants loaded with trinkets of those two metals. Their dress consists of a short shift, called *kmis;* of a linen or cotton under-petticoat termed *Ideil;* of a coloured upper one, which is generally blue, open on one side, called *gkesuira;* and of a corset with sleeves, termed *sidria*. The back part of their neck-kerchief is fastened up to the head; and their hair, which is smooth, well powdered and pomatumed, is dressed in front in the form of a sugar-loaf, much in the style of the *toupées à la Grêque*, so long worn by the men. They ornament their necks with gold and silver chains; sometimes, indeed, with necklaces of precious stones: their arms are loaded with bracelets, and their ear-rings are in general more expensive than elegant. Their shoe-

shoe-buckles are extremely large, and always either of solid gold or silver.'

As a proof of the happiness of the Maltese, and of their being satisfied with the government of the Grand Master, it is remarked that 'before the unfortunate events in 1798, these people were never known to murmur in the smallest degree. The sovereign was continually bestowing new favours on his subjects, who, in their turn, never ceased to lavish on him praises and blessings.' By the intrigues, however, of the French, the power of the governor and the comfort of the governed were undermined and destroyed.

Before we introduce any of the history of the Knights, it may not be amiss to present to the reader an extract relative to the manner in which these brothers of St. John of Jerusalem were professed, especially as we receive the account from one of the order. The ceremonies on this occasion are not less deserving of notice, than those which appertain to other fraternities of Knighthood.

M. de Boisgelin is particularly desirous of stating the form of the oath, because, he tells us, many authors have given a very false idea of it. On the following representation, we take it for granted, we can rely:

"Those who are determined to dedicate themselves to the service of the sick, and to the defence of the Catholic religion, in the habit of our order, are received at their profession in the following manner:—They ought to be perfectly well acquainted that they are about to put off the old man, and to be regenerated, by humbly confessing all their sins, according to the established custom of the church; and, after having received absolution, they are to present themselves in a secular habit, without a girdle, in order to appear perfectly free at the time they enter into so sacred an engagement, with a lighted taper in their hands, representing charity, to hear mass, and to receive the holy communion."

'They afterwards presented themselves most respectfully before the person who was to perform the ceremony, and requested to be received into the company of brothers, and into the holy order of the Hospital of Jerusalem He then addressed them in a short speech, to confirm them in their pious designs, to explain how salutary and advantageous it was to consecrate themselves to the service of the poor in Christ Jesus, to be constantly employed in works of mercy, and to devote themselves to the defence of the Christian faith—a favour which many had vainly attempted to obtain. He proceeded to point out the engagement they were to enter into of perfect obedience;—the severity of the rules, which would no longer permit them to act for themselves, which obliged them absolutely to renounce their own will and pleasure, and implicitly to comply with that of their superiors; so that if ever they felt an inclination to do one thing, they were compelled by their vow of obedience to do another.

'He

'He next asked the candidate whether he found himself disposed to submit to all these obligations; whether he had ever before taken the vows in any other order; whether he had ever been married; if his marriage had been consummated; if he owed any considerable sums; and if he were a slave: because, if, after having taken the vows, it were discovered that he had done any of these acts, or had been in the last-mentioned situation, he would be immediately stripped of his habit with disgrace, as a deceiver, and given up to the master to whom he formerly belonged.

'If he declared that he had contracted no such engagements, the brother who received him presented him an open missal, on which he placed both his hands, and having answered all the above questions, made his profession in the following terms:

"*Io N. faccio voto e prometto a Dio omnipotente, ed alla Beata Maria sempre Vergine, madre di Dio, ed a San Giovanni Battista, di osservare perpetuamente, con l'ajuta di Dio, vera obedienza a qualunque superiore che mi sara dato da Dio, e dalla nostra religione, e di piu vivere senza proprio e a'osservar castita.*"

"I N. do vow and promise to Almighty God, to the holy eternal Virgin Mary, mother of God, and to St. John the Baptist, to render, henceforward, by the grace of God, perfect obedience to the superior placed over me by the choice of the order, to live without personal property and to preserve my chastity."

'Having taken his hands from the book, the brother who received him said as follows: "We acknowledge you as the servant of the poor and sick, and as having consecrated yourself to the defence of the Catholic church." To which he answered: "I acknowledge myself as such." He then kissed the missal, placed it on the altar, which he likewise kissed, and brought it back to the brother who received him, in token of perfect obedience. Upon which, the brother took the mantle, and, shewing him the white cross upon it, thus addressed him: "Do you believe, my brother, that this is the symbol of that holy cross to which Jesus Christ was fastened, and on which he died for the redemption of our sins?" To which the new brother replied: "Yes, I do verily believe it." The other then added: "It is also the sign of our order, which we command you constantly to wear." The new brother then kissed the sign of the cross, and the other threw the mantle over his shoulders in such a manner that the cross was placed on the left breast. The brother who had received him then kissed him, saying: "Take this sign in the name of the holy Trinity, of the holy eternal Virgin Mary and of St. John the Baptist, for the increase of faith, the defence of the Christian name and for the service of the poor. We place this cross on your breast, my brother, that you may love it with all your heart; and may your right hand ever fight in its defence, and for its preservation! Should it ever happen that, in combatting for Jesus Christ against the enemies of the faith, you should retreat, desert the standard of the cross, and take to flight in so just a war, you will be stripped of this truly holy sign, according to the statutes and customs of the order,

order, as having broken the vow you have just taken, and cut off from our body, as an unsound and corrupt member."

'He then put the mantle on the new brother, tied it with strings round his neck, and said: "Receive the yoke of the Lord, for it is easy and light, and you shall find rest for your soul. We promise you nothing but bread and water, a simple habit, and of little worth. We give you, your parents and relations, a share in the good works performed by our order, and by our brothers, both now and hereafter, throughout the world." To which the newly professed knight answered *Amen*, (that is to say) So be it. After which, the brother who had received him, and all who were present on the occasion, embraced and kissed him in token of friendship, peace, and brotherly love.'

The priests who have said mass then repeat several prayers; one of which is nearly the same with our prayer for the Bishops, &c.

"Oh almighty and everlasting God! who alone workest great marvels, send down upon N. thy servant the healthful spirit of thy grace; and, that he may truly please thee, pour upon him the continual dew of thy blessing, through Jesus Christ our Lord. Amen."

An ample enumeration is made of the property belonging to the several *langues* or languages into which the Order was divided, and from which a great part of its revenue proceeded: but for these particulars we must refer to the work. The table exhibiting the receipts and expenditure of the Maltese Government makes a poor figure when compared with John Bull's *Budget*. The annual average total of the revenue of the Order from 1779 to 1788 is estimated at 136,114l. sterling, and the annual expence of the Maltese Navy is given at 47,494l. It is surprizing to read that a Navy, which in some measure swept the Mediterranean clear of pirates, should have been supported at so small an expence.

Though the history of the Knights of Malta, which occupies the second Volume, commences with the Mastership of L'Isle Adam, yet, in order to give a more complete view of the subject, the author has prefixed a chronological historical table (with observations corrective of the errors of former historians) of the Grand Masters, and of the Hospitaller Order of St. John of Jerusalem; from the reign of Gerard, elected in 1099, to that of Philippe Villiers, de L'Isle Adam, elected in 1521.

With all the enthusiasm of a Knight of the Order of St. John, M. de Boisgelin relates the particulars of the siege of Malta by an army of 30,000 Turks, in 1565, during the mastership of La Valette. Many pages are occupied with the affecting narrative, of which we can only copy a few passages respecting the attack and defence of Fort St. Elmo:

'On the 21st of June the Turks returned in crowds to the assault, their whole army being in the trenches and at the foot of the wall. The bashaw, elated by the hopes of carrying the place, did not spare his soldiers; but he always met with the same courageous resistance from the besieged. Three times were the infidels repulsed, and three times did they re-commence this furious assault. Numbers of knights perished; and had not the close of day put a stop to the combat, they would no longer have been in a situation to resist the numerous enemies which pressed upon them on every side.

'This little respite gave them an opportunity of examining the great loss they had sustained; and they passed the night in listening to the groans of the dying, and in dressing each other's wounds. The bailiff de Negropont, L'Amirande, Dumas, and all the principal chiefs, gave every possible assistance to the poor soldiers; and thus, like true Hospitallers, worthily performed the duties of their profession. Reduced to such a dreadful extremity, they neglected nothing which might contribute to their safety, or at least delay their ruin as long as possible. They therefore employed an expert swimmer to cross the port, and represent the deplorable situation of the fort to the grand-master; who was much less surprised at this afflicting intelligence (which indeed he expected), than moved with compassion at the loss the order was about to sustain in so many valiant knights. He still endeavoured to contrive some method of sending them relief, and commanded five large boats to be armed, which were presently crowded by numbers of knights, all burning with zeal, and inspired by never-failing courage; but all their efforts were fruitless, and they found it impossible to reach the fort. Those who defended it, having lost all hope, determined to die like good Christians and religious knights. To prepare themselves for this event, they took the sacrament during the night; and having tenderly embraced each other, they returned to their posts, there to die, and to yield up their souls to their Maker in the performance of their duty. Those whose wounds prevented their marching, were carried in a chair to the breach, and, with their swords grasped in both hands, waited with heroical firmness the arrival of those enemies they were incapable of seeking.

'The Turks began the assault at day-break, and shouted with the assurance of a victory which could now no longer be disputed; but the Christian soldiers still defended themselves with invincible resolution; and the certainty of dying with the knights, seemed to inspire them with an equal degree of courage. Some threw stones and fire-works, whilst others proudly advanced towards the enemy, whom they approached with the boldness of conquerors. Even those who were unable to stand, never ceased firing their muskets. But, after having stood the assault four hours, sixty men only remained to defend the breach; but these heroes proved themselves more than mortal, and, nobly despising death, still inspired their enemies with terror. L'Amirande, finding this post was on the point of being forced, called to his assistance some soldiers, who, till that moment, had maintained their place on the cavalier which had been made before the fort.

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'When the bashaw perceived the breach thus re-inforced, he immediately put a stop to the assault. As if disheartened by such an obstinate resistance, he pretended to retreat; but only with the view of sending his Jannissaries to take possession of the cavalier which had just been abandoned, and, at the same time, to seize on the superior posts of the breach, from which the fort might plainly be perceived.

'The besieged took advantage of this respite to bind up their wounds; not with the idea of saving the remnant of a miserable existence, but to give them strength to continue the combat a short time longer. At eleven in the morning the Turks returned to the assault with redoubled fury; and the Jannissaries on the top of the cavalier, together with those posted in other parts, seemed to make choice of those they wished to destroy. Most of the knights were killed by the enemy's fire; and the few remaining soldiers, overpowered by numbers, perished in the breach. This terrible assault ceased at last, merely from want of combatants; not one knight being left alive.

'The bashaw entered the fort; and, struck by the insignificance of the place, rightly judged that the conquest of the Burgh could not be effected without much difficulty. "What resistance," exclaimed he, "may we not expect from the parent, when the child, small as it is, has cost us our bravest soldiers?" It is indeed well attested that the Turks lost eight thousand men at this siege; but, alas! the loss of the order was much more essential; three hundred knights and more than thirteen hundred soldiers having perished on this occasion.'

It is consolatory to find that such instances of courage and self-devotion, on the part of the knights, were not in vain, but that they at length succeeded in forcing the Turks to raise the siege; by which event the Grand Master La Valette and the Order obtained the highest fame throughout Europe; and potentates felt proud in giving assistance to repair the losses which they had sustained, and to make them more secure against future attacks.

Concerning the naval prowess of the Knights, one passage must suffice:

'The chevaliers Crainville and Tremicourt, who commanded the one a forty-gun ship and the other a frigate of twenty, met a caravan in the Levant, consisting of ten ships and twelve saicks, sailing from Alexandria to Constantinople. The comparative strength of the adversary only tended to inspire these two knights with fresh ardour; and they instantly brought up their little squadron in the centre of that of the enemy, sunk some, took four of the richest, two of the smallest, and dispersed the remainder. The chevalier d'Hocquincourt likewise, nearly about the same time, performed an action of almost incredible heroism, to the everlasting honour of his memory. This knight, while at anchor off the Dolphin island, saw himself blocked

blocked up by thirty-three of the grand-signior's galleys carrying troops to the isle of Candia. The flag-officer commanding this force landed, and, under his orders, showers of arrows poured upon the Maltese vessels from the most skilful of the archers. In the mean time the broadsides of the Turkish galleys were opened upon his ship; and the infidels, having succeeded in carrying away her rigging, prepared to board her both at the head and the stern; but Hocquincourt, as if invulnerable, defended himself on all sides, and, with a crippled vessel and crew, at length fairly beat off the Turk. This obstinate resistance greatly incensed the infidel general; who, ashamed of the slender efforts made by his galleys, forced them to open their line, and leave him a passage free to bear down on the Maltese vessel: at the same time he caused his crew to push forward his galley with all their force; but fortunately the violence of this effort threw Hocquincourt's ship out of the port, and a favourable wind springing up, he soon gained the nearest Christian port, after having sunk several galleys, and killed six hundred soldiers.'

The subsequent fate of this brave Knight is detailed: but, though the story is pathetic, we must restrain our pen.

When M. Boisgelin descends to more recent times, his pages are not less animated. In the 2d part of the history, he animadverts with spirit, and with a virtuous indignation, on the scandalous proceedings of the French towards Malta, both before and after its submission to their domination: yet his resentment against the plunderers of the island does not prevent him from applauding the patient conduct of the French army, under the numerous hardships which it sustained during the blockade by our fleet, previously to their being starved into a surrender of the island into our hands. The distress of the inhabitants cannot be better collected than from the following table of the price of provisions:

'Different articles of provisions, at this time, were increased to the following exorbitant prices:

		Liv. sus.		£.	*s.*	*d.*
Fresh pork, *per lb.*		8	12	0	7	2
Bottle of oil, called *Cartouche.*	from	24	0	1	0	0
	to	28	0	1	3	4
Pound of sugar	from	43	0	1	16	8
	to	48	0	2	0	0
Pound of Coffee	from	48	0	2	0	0
	to	58	0	2	8	4

'Large rats, especially those found in the bakehouses, were extremely dear, and in much estimation. Almost all the dogs and cats in the city had been killed and eaten, consequently were become exceedingly scarce. Asses, mules, and horses, had experienced the same fate; except, indeed, a few belonging to the French, which were absolutely necessary for the service of the garrison.'

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Such a scarcity, verging towards absolute famine, soon enforced the necessity of capitulation: but the French were so deeply impressed with a conviction of the hatred of the Maltese, that they particularly stipulated 'that neither the soldiers in the besieger's troops, nor the inhabitants of the country, should be permitted to enter the city till such time as the French troops should be embarked, and out of sight of the port.'

We were amused with M. Boisgelin's account of what we might term the coquetting of the Order with the Emperor Paul; who assumed to himself the Grand Mastership, and with whom the Knights were so delighted that they presented him a golden Cross, which had been *touched with St. John's hand, and a piece of the real cross.*

Keeping steadily in view the object of his history, this writer takes his leave of us with urging the deplorable situation of the Maltese under any other government than that of the Knights, and the expediency of their being reinstated in the island; since they alone are capable of keeping up a continual war against the Barbary Pirates. How far M. de Boisgelin will succeed in persuading our Government of this fact, we shall not venture to hint: but we are of opinion that most of his readers will commend the temper with which he writes, and will wish that his asylum in England may be rendered so comfortable as to diminish his regrets on his expulsion from Malta.

The numerous plates augment the value of this work; especially the Chart of the Islands of Malta and Goza, on a large scale, which faces the title of the first volume.

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ART. II. *An Historical View of the English Government*, from the Settlement of the Saxons in Britain to the Revolution in 1688. To which are subjoined some Dissertations connected with the History of the Government from the Revolution to the present Time. By John Millar, Esq., Professor of Law in the University of Glasgow. Vols. III. and IV. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Mawman.

IN the present volumes, which bring the subject down to our own times, the author continues his neat summary of the leading points of our history; and his observations on those political changes, whence arose the free spirit and benignant genius of our admirable constitution. The pages before us, not less than those which so long preceded them *, display a laudable love of liberty, and a warm regard

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* See M. Rev. Vol. lxxvii. p. 106.

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for the rights of the subject; while they afford the same proofs of the author's sound judgment and just discrimination.

An introduction very properly apprizes us that, during the greater part of the period which intervened between the revolution of 1688 and the present day, we are not to ascribe our superior political situation to our excellent frame of government alone: but that we are to allow its due share to that disputed succession, which occasioned our rulers 'to act with extreme circumspection, and to abstain from every measure which might occasion suspicion and alarm.' Of this fact, it is highly expedient that we should be made sensible; in order to prevent us from over-rating our security, and from cherishing the dangerous opinion that the exertions of our ancestors have dispensed with the necessity of vigilance in their descendants.

The Professor begins his third volume with a review of the Government of Scotland; a part of the work which is highly interesting, since it discloses numerous particulars with regard to the antient polity of that state, which are little known in the south of the island. As a general cause which retarded the progress of the Scottish Government towards perfection, he considers the greater barbarism under which the country laboured, in consequence of its never having been subjugated by the Romans. He observes that,

'In tracing the history of the Scottish government, there are three great periods which fall to be distinguished. The first reaches from the time when Britain was abandoned by the Romans to the reign of Malcolm the Second. This comprehends the primitive aristocracy; and is analogous to the period of the Anglo-Saxon government in the southern part of the island. The second extends from that reign to the time when James the Sixth of Scotland mounted the English throne. This corresponds to the reigns of the Norman, Plantagenet, and Tudor princes in England, and exhibits the circumstances which, from the nature of the feudal policy, contributed to exalt the power of the monarch. The third contains the interval between the union of the crowns of England and Scotland, to the union of the two kingdoms. In this last period, the Scotish nation had not made such advances in commerce as could produce any great alteration in their political system; but the administration of their government was then rendered subordinate to that of England, a manufacturing and commercial country.'

The antient villeinage, and its progeny, the modern copyholds, are stated to be alike unknown to the history and law of Scotland; as are also the inferior civil divisions of tythings and hundreds: while, like England, it had its shires governed by Aldermen or Earls, or their deputies the Sheriffs. From time immemorial, traces appear of a national council, consisting of

the proprietors and higher clergy. The members of it individually were very independent, and collectively were invested with almost the whole power of the state. The king could not put a negative on its decrees: but he was its head, and his suffrage was involved in its determination. In some instances, it considered the king as its executive officer, whose province it was to carry its measures into effect. This assembly adjourned its meetings, and appointed the time and place of its future deliberations. It consisted of the Barons, the higher Clergy, and the Burgesses; and it formed but one house. James I. issued summonses to the inferior vassals of the crown to appear in Parliament, but this regulation was never enforced until the reign of James VI. The Crown latterly attained to a considerable ascendancy over the national council, in consequence of the functions of the Lords of the Articles; who were at first appointed in order to facilitate business, but who came finally to exercise an absolute controul over the deliberations of Parliament. Charles I. procured an act to enable the Peers to elect eight Bishops, the Bishops eight Peers, and these sixteen to elect eight Knights of the shire, and eight Burgesses; to all of whom were added the eight Ministers of State. No bills were to be submitted to the legislature, but such as had passed through the hands of this committee, and it is easy to see that the influence of the crown would predominate in it. The antient statutes, the author remarks, contain indubitable evidence of the highly aristocratical nature of the government in its early stages; and the account of a sort of management with regard to those acts is too curious to permit us to pass it over:

'The particulars above-mentioned, concerning the aristocratic nature of the government in Scotland, are proved by the most authentic evidence, that of the statutes, collected from the records, and published by authority. It is remarkable, however, that a great part of the statutes referred to, are to be found in the first edition only of that collection, published in the reign of Queen Mary, and, from its being printed in the Saxon character, known by the name of the *Black Acts*. In the reign of James the Sixth, when the prerogative had been greatly extended, a design was formed of concealing, as far as possible, the ancient state of the government; for which purpose an attempt was made to suppress this edition: and another was published, in which those acts which appeared to demonstrate the high powers of parliament were carefully omitted. This mutilated collection is copied in the last edition of the statutes published in the reign of Charles the Second, which is now commonly used. The copies of the Black Acts which remain at present are not numerous, and the peculiar knowledge to be derived from that ancient compilation is, in some degree, limited to those who are conversant in the legal antiquities of Scotland.

Scotland. The glaring imposition upon the public, thus attempted by the authority and direction of the crown, affords a noted example of the unprincipled measures of that reign, and conveys a strong presumption, that the old constitution of Scotland was diametrically opposite to the political views entertained by the sovereign, and to that system of regal power which he was labouring to realize.'

The author ascribes the slow progress made by the royal authority in Scotland, in part to the geographical peculiarities of the country, which were such as favoured the independence of each chief; and in part to the poverty of the lower orders, which rendered it impossible for the crown to set them up as any counterpoise to the nobility.

It was not till a late date that the reformation was introduced into Scotland; the people were the instruments which effected it; and hence the author accounts for the difference between this measure and that which was established in the southern part of the island. James, we are told, in consequence of his accession to the crown of England, was enabled to reduce the power of the nobility without improving the situation of the commonalty. We have before observed that it was in his reign that Knights of the shire first sat in the Scottish Parliament. The qualification of a voter was fixed, it is true, at forty shillings a year: but this was not determined by the value at the time, but according to a survey made at a very early period, with a view to a tax then imposed on the crown vassals: the effect of which arrangement was to confine the election to a few great landholders. James new-modelled the constitutions of the Royal boroughs, by curtailing their privileges, and rendering their constitutions less popular. Though the church establishment admitted no distinctions of rank, yet James and his immediate descendants contrived to have Bishops to sit in Parliament; yet they were allowed to exercise scarcely any functions that were purely ecclesiastical. Thus was the monarch at once endeavouring to diminish the present stock of liberty, and to obliterate from memory the traces of its antient sway. The Professor very justly remarks that these practices, which are too notorious to be controverted, ill agree with the hypothesis of Hume; which represents the Stuarts not as invading established popular rights, but as merely, from conscientious motives, defending from the encroachments of the people the store of prerogatives which had descended to them from their ancestors. The system in Scotland was more open, the event of it was more auspicious, and thus it displays more unequivocally the temper and designs of the several sovereigns.—We are obliged to the

author for exhibiting these matters so fully and distinctly to our view.

Prosfesor Millar concludes the present digression with a well wrought and highly flattering picture of his countrymen. Who will not forgive him his partiality in favour of his native soil?—a feeling against which sciolists for a moment inveighed, but which has been avowed and made their boast by the wisest and best men of all ages and climes.

The great advantages which England derived from the union of the two crowns under James I. as far as respected internal security, the influence of increasing manufactures and growing commerce on the state of society, and the changes which they produced in the situations of all the classes of the community, are here elaborately discussed; and this statement forms not the least interesting and agreeable portion of the present performance. The author nicely balances the opposite effects, arising from the introduction of mercenary troops in the room of the antient feudal militia, on the one hand; and the dependence of the crown on Parliament for the means of subsisting them, on the other. He remarks that the union of the two crowns, the loss of our continental territories, our insular situation, the peculiarities of the naval service, and the jealousy of a people highly free and privileged, rendered the establishment of a standing army impossible, and account for the limitations within which the regal power was confined.

No persons can admire, more than ourselves, the masterly displays of extraordinary ability which occur in the various performances of Mr. Hume; nor can they regret, more than we do, his frequent misapplication of the rare talents with which he was endowed. While we lament the mischiefs occasioned by his metaphysical sophisms, scarcely do we less deplore those political paradoxes, in the construction of which so much ingenuity and dexterity have been displayed by him; and which, having no better foundations than artifice, misrepresentation, and falsehood, have proved so detrimental to the spirit of liberty in this country. It ought not to be forgotten that the advocate of the tyrannical and contemptible House of Stuart,—the apologist of its equally shameless and weak attempts to introduce arbitrary rule among a free and high minded people,—had, with the same apparent good faith and earnestness, laboured to obliterate all moral distinctions, and to efface all belief in a Providence and a Deity. We are glad to have it in our power to oppose to a guide so fallacious, yet so fascinating, a writer of the real estimation of Professor Millar. The following summary, though it differs widely

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from the conclusions of the favourite historian, is in our judgment fully warranted by facts:

'During the whole reign of James, the behaviour of the commons was calm, steady, and judicious, and does great honour to the integrity and abilities of those eminent patriots by whom the determinations of that assembly were chiefly directed. Their apprehensions concerning the prevalence of popery were, perhaps, greater than there was any good reason to entertain; but this proceeded from the prejudice of the times; and to judge fairly of the spirit with which, in this particular, the members of parliament were animated, we must make allowance for the age and country in which they lived, and for the occurrences which were still fresh in their memory. Though placed in circumstances that were new and critical, though heated by a contest in which their dearest rights were at stake, and doubtless alarmed by the danger to which, from their perseverance in their duty, they were exposed, they seem to have kept at an equal distance from invading the prerogatives of the crown, and betraying the liberties of the people. They defended the ancient government with vigour; but they acted merely upon the defensive; and it will be difficult to shew that they advanced any one claim which was either illegal or unreasonable. *The conduct of James, on the other hand, was an uniform system of tyranny prosecuted according to the scale of his talents.* In particular, his levying money without consent of parliament, his dispensing with the laws against popish recusants, and his imprisoning and punishing the members of parliament for declaring their opinions in the house, were manifest and atrocious violations of the constitution.'

Our records equally justify the Professor in his observations on the invalidity of the regal claim to levy taxes.

The remarks, which introduce the fine tribute to our immortal patriot, are highly creditable to the understanding and discrimination of the writer:

'When we examine the conduct of the four first parliaments of Charles, there appears no good reason for suspecting them of any design to alter the constitution. The circumstances of the crown were such at this time, as required particular attention to every proposal for new taxes, and rendered an extreme jealousy upon this point not only natural, but proper. From the alterations which had gradually and almost insensibly taken place in the state of society, the circumstances of the people with respect to taxation had been totally changed. The old revenue of the crown was become very inadequate to the expence of government; and as the estates of individuals were liable to supply the deficiency, the nation was deeply concerned, not only to prevent arbitrary impositions, but also to limit those burdens which every member of administration had continually an interest in accumulating. Like sureties for a person in hazard of bankruptcy, it was incumbent on them to watch over the principal debtor, and to prevent his extravagance. As from the charges attending the civil and military establishments, the king could never be at a loss for pretences to

demand money from his subjects, it was from this quarter that they were most in danger of oppression, and had most reason to guard against the encroachments of perogative.

'The alterations, at the same time, in the military state of the kingdom, were such as rendered unusual care and vigilance necessary to preserve the ancient constitution. While the feudal vassals continued to perform the military service, the people had the sword in their own hands; and consequently, the means of defending themselves from oppression. But after the substitution of mercenary troops to the ancient feudal militia, the nation became an unarmed and timorous multitude, without discipline or capacity for any sudden exertion, and seemed to be entirely at the mercy of the king, who levied at pleasure and directed the whole military force. Had no new circumstance occurred upon the side of the people, to counterbalance the additional weight thus bestowed upon the crown, their liberties could not have been maintained. But the necessities of the king requiring continual grants of money from parliament, afforded this countervailing circumstance, by rendering him dependent upon the national representatives, and obliging him to listen to the complaints of his people. It was in this manner only that the prerogative could be retained within its ancient limits.

'If parliament, however, had always been ready to supply the wants of the king; if they had never stood upon terms, and demanded a rectification of abuses as the condition of their consenting to taxes; their power would soon have dwindled into a shadow, and their consent would have become a mere matter of form. They would have soon found themselves in the same state with those ghosts of national councils, who continued to hover about the courts of some European monarchies, and were still called to give an imaginary sanction to that will of the prince which they had no longer the capacity of opposing. By good fortune, the imprudence of Charles, and still more that of his father, by discovering too plainly the lofty ideas they entertained of the regal authority, alarmed the fears of parliament; and the house of commons, by having the courage to *refuse*, preserved their privilege of bestowing the public money at a time when they had lost all other means of compulsion.

'In the history of the world, we shall perhaps discover few instances of pure and genuine patriotism equal to that which, during the reign of James, and during the first fifteen years of the reign of Charles, was displayed by those leading members of parliament, who persevered, with no less temper than steadiness, in opposing the violent measures of the court. The higher exertions of public spirit are often so contrary to common feelings, and to the ordinary maxims of conduct in private life, that we are, in many cases, at a loss whether to condemn or to admire them. It may also be remarked, that in the most brilliant examples of heroism, the splendour of the achievement, at the same time that it dazzles the beholder, elevates and supports the mind of the actor, and enables him to despise the difficulties and dangers with which he is surrounded. When Brutus took away the life of Cæsar, he ran counter to those ordinary rules which bind society together; but, according to the notions of his own age,

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he secured the applause and veneration of the worthier part of his countrymen. To perform a great service to our country by means that are altogether unexceptionable, merits a purer approbation: and if the action, while it is equally pregnant with danger, procures less admiration and renown, it affords a more unequivocal and convincing proof of true magnanimity and virtue. When Hampden, by an appeal to the laws of his country, exposed himself to the fury of Charles and his ministry, he violated no friendship, he transgressed no duty, public or private; and while he stood forth to defend the cause of liberty, he must have been sensible that his efforts, if ineffectual, would soon be neglected and forgotten; and that even if successful, they were less calculated to procure the applause of his cotemporaries, than to excite the admiration and esteem of a grateful posterity.

'To the illustrious patriots who remained unshaken during this period, we are indebted, in a good measure, for the preservation of that freedom which was banished from most of the other countries of Europe. They set the example of a constitutional resistance to the encroachments of prerogative; accommodated their mode of defence to the variations in the state of society which the times had produced; and taught the house of commons, by a judicious exercise of their exclusive right of taxation, to maintain and secure the rights of their constituents.'

It is a humiliating consideration that Britons owe their proud distinctions, and invaluable liberties, as much to the weakness of the House of Stuart as to their own firmness. The Princes of this race were not contented merely to invade their liberties: but they at the same time roused their apprehensions, alarmed their prejudices, and exercised on them the most galling oppressions. Let the reader call to mind the Popish marriage, the loan of the ships to the court of France to reduce the Rochellers, and the barbarous and inhuman proceedings of the Star-chamber.—The Professor fairly recapitulates the early proceedings of the long Parliament, and expresses his approbation of them. He also vindicates the sentence passed on the Earl of Strafford. The English law, it is certain, did not meet the offence of this grand culprit. If we regard the principles which regulate the measures of penal retributions, it will be (we conceive) difficult to shew that the awful visitation, which he experienced, exceeded the amount of his crimes: but our limits will not permit us to sketch the view which we should take of this delicate subject.

The author is of opinion that, had Charles I. submitted *bonâ fide* to the first demands of the long Parliament, the dismal consequences which followed would have been prevented:

'If he had done nothing, in the mean time, to call in question the sincerity of his compliances, it is probable that parliament, and the nation, would have been satisfied with the redress which they had

procured, and with the amendments on the constitution which had been introduced. But they soon found reason to believe, that, in these concessions, the monarch was far from being sincere. When Charles called this parliament, he must have expected a good deal of clamour; that grievances would echo from every quarter; and that liberal promises of redress and amendment, as a previous step to obtaining supplies, would be unavoidable. For all this, it is not unlikely, he was prepared; and had made a virtue of necessity. But when he saw that the regulations proposed by parliament struck at the root of all his projects; carried their defensive operations into all the departments of the state; and would effectually prevent his recurring to those expedients which he had formerly employed in the extension of his prerogative, he was thrown into the utmost consternation and perplexity. Parliament had now shewn that they would grant no money except upon their own terms; and such was the tide of popular opinion, that, without their consent, no considerable supplies could be expected. There seemed only to remain, therefore, in his present situation, the alternative of abandoning altogether his design to change the constitution, or of endeavouring, by some desperate enterprize, to extricate himself from the surrounding difficulties.'

We insert, without any comment, a portion of the author's view of the conduct of the parties in this awful struggle:

'Whoever examines with attention the proceedings of this parliament, from their first meeting to the commencement of the civil war, will easily perceive that their views were somewhat different from those of the four preceding parliaments; and perhaps will find reason to conclude, that they did not continue, throughout the whole of this period, invariably the same. It was the object of this parliament to reform such parts of the constitution as were grossly defective; but their plan of reformation was necessarily varied and extended according to the pressure of circumstances; and in proportion to their discoveries of the hazard to which they were exposed from the temper and disposition of the king, they were led to insist upon a greater limitation of his powers. How far they were justified in all their demands, has been the subject of much controversy. To judge candidly of their behaviour, we must enter into the situation in which they were placed, and make allowance for the difficulties with which they were surrounded; we must also make allowance for the passions under which they were obliged to form sudden resolutions; for the jarring opinions, the irregular influence, and the accidental humours of individuals; for the slippery ground of popular favour upon which they stood, and for the errors and prepossessions from which, in an age when philosophy was far from its meridian height, they could not be exempted. With these allowances they will not only be acquitted of any bad intention, but will appear entitled to a high degree of approbation, even to the warmest gratitude of posterity. However much they might be tinctured by enthusiasm and religious prejudices, they seem to have acted from pure and disinterested motives; and were neither seduced nor intimidated, upon any occasion, to swerve from

from those patriotic principles by which they professed to be guided. It would perhaps be difficult, even at this day, to point out a line of conduct more eligible than that which they pursued; and which, with no greater deviation from the former practice, would be better calculated to frustrate the ambitious designs of Charles, or to guard against the attempts of any future monarch for subverting the constitution.

'That the parliament had, at this time, any intention to overturn the monarchy, and to establish a republican form of government, there is no good reason to suppose. After all the regulations which this parliament introduced, the sovereign still remained in the possession of very ample powers. He still would have enjoyed a voice in the legislature. He would still have exercised the power of collecting and disposing of the public revenue at his discretion. He would still have remained the fountain of honour; would have nominated all the judges during pleasure; and have had the sole privilege of declaring peace and war, with that of levying and commanding all the mercenary forces of the kingdom. In a word, his direct authority would have been more absolute than that of the British monarch at present. The patriots of that day overlooked a variety of limitations upon the crown, which the more enlarged experience of a latter period has taught the English nation to establish. They had no thought of a permanent provision, to prevent extravagance and bad economy in the expenditure of public money. They suggested no restriction with respect to the number of standing forces maintained in time of peace. Though they prohibited the king from extending martial law to the whole community, they put no restraint upon him in the application of that system to the army. They made no attempt to secure the independence of judges, by fixing their nomination for life. Having no suspicion of any undue influence which the king might obtain over parliaments, they permitted him to continue the same parliament as long as he pleased. In all these particulars, it was found necessary to make additional regulations upon the accession of William the Third; from which it may with reason be inferred, that the parliament which met in the latter part of the year 1640, instead of being liable to the censure of doing too much, was rather exposed to that of having done too little, for preventing the encroachments of prerogative.

'With respect to the conduct of Charles during this period, we meet with no important variation: the same arbitrary system was invariably pursued, and by the same unscrupulous means of dissimulation and duplicity. To those, indeed, who look no further than the immediate transactions, and who are unable to trace the intention and motives of the parties, it may seem that the ground of the dispute had been changed; while parliament was labouring to introduce a set of palpable innovations; and the king, who certainly consented to these with reluctance, is presented to us in the light of a secret friend to the old constitution. This is the aspect of the controversy, which those authors who attempt to excuse or justify the monarch, are at great pains to exhibit, and to which they would willingly confine the attention of the reader. They endeavour to conceal, or to keep out

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of view, the former measures of the sovereign, by which he had subverted the fundamental laws of the kingdom, and the evidence which had occurred of his obstinate resolution to persist in the same designs. Thus they impute to parliament the offences, in reality, committed by the king; and represent as violations of the constitution the regulations which had become absolutely necessary for its preservation; that is, they consider as a poison the antidote given to prevent its baneful effects.'

Professor Millar is more brief than we could have wished in discussing the usurpation, and treats Oliver Cromwell less favourably than he is represented even by Lord Clarendon.

The profligacies of the reign of Charles II. were too notorious to be denied or dissembled, and Hume himself shrunk from the task of glossing them over; for a just picture of its enormities, we beg to refer our readers to the volume before us.—On the subject of the Popish plot, the author thus expresses himself; 'It was the offspring of alarm and credulity, propagated in all probability from a small groundwork of truth; and when it had grown to maturity, employed by an interested policy as a convenient engine for counteracting the pernicious measures of the crown.'—Mr. M. ably comments on the leading clauses in the Bill of Rights, and gives a history of the several grievances which they were intended respectively to remedy; he also shews that they were not newly-created privileges, but the antient hereditary rights of the subjects of this country.

Volume IV. commences with a review of the government of Ireland. The free spirit and the good sense, which accompany the author in other parts of his undertaking, do not desert him in this difficult portion of it.—The remaining topics are of a general nature, and though they are naturally introduced at the close of a performance like the present, still they are wholly distinct from it, and but lightly touch on what we regard as its principal object. They are, besides, almost wholly to be found in the pages of Montesquieu, and of Dr. Smith: but they will interest young readers, since they are judiciously applied, and agreeably discussed.

This work does not boast of new discoveries, but it illustrates and confirms sound views of our constitution; though the observations of the author be not the result of very learned and profound researches, they are solid and correct; and we are furnished with able and temperate comments on those principles, which form the basis of our public consideration and national prosperity.

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ART. III. *The Works of Dr. John Brown.* To which is prefixed a Biographical Account of the Author, by William Cullen Brown, M.D., lately one of the Presidents of the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Johnson.

IN announcing to the public a new edition of the works of the celebated Brown, it would be inconsistent with our usual plan to form a complete analysis of "the Elements of Medicine," or to enter into an elaborate discussion respecting the merits of the Brunonian hypothesis. Both the original doctrine, and the objections that have been urged against it, have been so frequently and so ably canvassed, that we could not expect, in the limits of a review, to advance any remarks that would be either novel or satisfactory. We shall therefore principally confine ourselves to the consideration of the new matter contained in these volumes; which chiefly consists of a life of Dr. Brown, written by his son, Dr. William Cullen Brown, the present editor.

The biographical preface of Dr. Beddoes, affixed to a former edition of the "Elements," is so well known, and has on the whole been so much admired, that we are unavoidably led to compare it with the present performance; and we think that each will be found to possess its peculiar merits. Dr. Beddoes was rather scantily furnished with information: but he has, in a great measure, compensated for this defect, by an acuteness of observation and keenness of remark on human nature at large, which produce an interest in his work independent of the immediate subject of it. The general cast of his mind seems well adapted for delineating the bold and impetuous character which he undertook to illustrate, and he felt no restraint in his comments on the vicissitudes of Brown's life, or the causes which might be supposed to have produced them; a circumstance that seems almost essential in those cases in which personal failings and irregularities have had so considerable an influence over events.—From situation, the present editor is better able to furnish a minute detail of facts; and he accordingly affords us an ample narrative, which, if it be less interesting as a composition, must be regarded as a more authentic piece of biography. He is naturally anxious to place the character of the deceased in a favourable point of view, glossing over his defects and dwelling on his excellences; a line of conduct which the sentiments of filial piety may palliate, if they cannot justify it. Between the two performances,—that of Dr. Beddoes, and the one now before us,—we conceive that a correct idea of Dr. Brown's life and character may be acquired.

In the present work, we are supplied with a full account of the first years of the life of this celebrated person; who seems

seems to have exhibited unequivocal marks of ability at a very early period, and to have cultivated his scanty means of improvement with unusual assiduity. Shortly after having entered the grammar school at which he was placed, 'he mounted to the top of the class of scholars', whence his progress was astonishingly rapid; and, in the 10th year of his age, he obtained the place of *dux*, which he never lost.

His principal acquirements appear to have been of a classical nature; and to the facility with which he composed in Latin, by which he was enabled to assist the students in the university of Edinburgh in translating their inaugural dissertations into that language, is to be attributed his change from the profession of theology (to which he was originally destined) to that of medicine.

It is well known that Dr. Brown first entered into public life under the patronage of the celebrated Cullen; who derived important benefit from his classical erudition, and treated him with peculiar marks of friendship and confidence.

'In what respects he proved of essential service to his patron, is so well known, that it need not now be considered as improper to mention the nature of their connection. Dr. Cullen, who was extremely deficient in classical erudition, conceived the idea of turning his pupil's intimate knowledge of the Latin to his own permanent advantage, which he perceived could be done in various ways. There were few literary or philosophical societies in Europe, to which Dr. Cullen did not belong. His correspondence was consequently very extensive, and necesssarily maintained in Latin, a task to which he was little adequate. The value, therefore, of such a pupil, in preserving his credit on the continent, by acting as his Latin secretary, and gaining him as much reputation for literature, as he had acquired by his medical hypotheses, could hardly be sufficiently appreciated'—

'Such, again, was the unlimited confidence which Cullen reposed in him, that he permitted him in the evening to give a lecture, in which he repeated and illustrated the morning lecture of the professor; for which purpose he was intrusted with the manuscript of his preceptor. On the part of the pupil, many tokens of respect and esteem for his patron might be enumerated. For example, he named several of his children after those of Cullen; and, some years afterwards, he gave to the editor of these observations both his name and sirname.'

After some time, however, feelings of a very different nature were experienced by these friends; Cullen appears to have anxiously endeavoured to crush the rising reputation of his protégé; while Brown, feeling or conceiving that he felt himself oppressed and betrayed, retorted on his patron with all the vehemence of disappointed ambition, operating on a sanguine and impetuous temper. Cullen probably cannot be acquitted of having acted towards him with duplicity, and of having en-

couraged expectations which he never intended to realize: but he must not be too harshly condemned; and in opposing the election of Brown to a professor's chair, he might have been influenced by other motives besides those of envy and illiberality. Unless we attribute the subsequent conduct of Brown to the effects of this disappointment, we must acknowlege that, notwithstanding the brilliancy of his genius, his vulgar habits and his gross and licentious practices would have ill qualified him to fill the important situation to which he aspired.

From this period, his misfortunes and his irregularities of conduct increased with rapid and nearly equal progress. He commenced an avowed hostility against the professors and physicians of Edinburgh, and seems to have prescribed no bounds to his abuse of them. One of the circumstances, which appeared the most effectually to destroy his credit in that city, was an affair in which he clandestinely interfered in the treatment of a patient under the care of another physician; an act which sets at defiance every principle of professional honour and integrity. This occurrence, of the truth of which we presume no reasonable doubt can be entertained, is related by Dr. Beddoes in a circumstantial manner, but is not noticed by the present biographer; an omission which can scarcely be pardoned, even in the case of a son who stands forth as the apologist of his father's errors.—His career in London was short and disastrous; every gleam of temporary prosperity seems to have produced an immediate recurrence to his habits of dissipation; and it is probable that his premature death rescued him from a state of still more abject distress.

Notwithstanding the unfortunate career of Dr. Brown's life, it is evident that he possessed a powerful and vigorous understanding. Like many others, who are indebted principally to their own exertions for the knowlege which they possess, he was fully sensible of his own merits, and impatient to impress the world with an equally favourable opinion of them. He embraced his peculiar tenets with the warmest enthusiasm, and he experienced the utmost keenness of disappointment when he perceived that they were either contradicted or neglected. His attachments and his resentments appear to have had no limits; and if to this consideration we add the total want of prudence and addresss, we may discern a satisfactory cause for the numerous calamities in which he became involved. Even his good qualities seem to have operated unfavourably; since his perfect openness of heart made him an easy prey to artifice, and his warmth of friendship led him into habits of extravagance and dissipation. —The editor is anxious to controvert the insinuation thrown

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out by Dr. Beddoes, that Brown had never any extensive practice, and was not observant of the phænomena of disease:

'How any man, (he says,) however brilliant his genius might be, without supernatural aid, could have raised such a superstructure, as he has done in his new doctrine, upon any thing but the most laborious and attentive observance of disease, it is not easy to conceive. Every deduction in the doctrine is the result of the careful investigation of facts; and though the same morbid phenomena for a succession of ages had been observed by others, it was reserved to his superior genius to discover the principle upon which they are to be explained, and to draw conclusions with respect to the practice, the importance of which renders his discovery of the greatest possible consequence to mankind.'

We cannot, however, acquiesce either in this paneygric on the 'new doctrine', or in the deduction drawn from it. We think that not only the events of Dr. Brown's life, but the peculiarities of his hypothesis, clearly demonstrate that, at the period at which he composed his Elements of Medicine, he had seen little practice, and paid little attention to the morbid changes of the body. His system bears the most decided marks of genius and originality: but it seems to have been produced rather by the efforts of his powerful mind dwelling on a few facts, than by any extensive range either of medical learning or of practical observation. In confirmation of this opinion, we would remark that the Brunonian hypothesis applies much more correctly to the explanation of the train of healthy actions, than to account for the varieties which occur in disease; and hence we observe that, though the doctrine has obtained numerous advocates among those who have acquired their knowlege of medicine from books or lectures, few of those who have studied in the school of experience can reconcile its leading tenets to the facts which daily present themselves.

It has always been an object with minds possessed of great natural powers, but of little cultivation, to take extensive though inaccurate views of science, to attempt the utmost simplicity of classification, and to disregard what they conceive to be petty distinctions. Such imposing doctrines are sure of meeting with numerous advocates; both among men of genius, who eagerly catch at every indication of the same quality in others, and also among the indolent, who are glad to adopt a system which professes to relieve science from the labour of investigation. The Brunonian doctrine has run the usual career; when first started, it was embraced with an enthusiasm proportioned to the abilities of its inventor: but, like preceding theories, it has been found inapplicable to practice; and though every ingenuous mind must admit that it produced important improvements in medicine, yet

its professed adherents in this country are neither numerous nor respectable. On the continents, both of Europe and America, Brunonianism appears indeed to flourish with unabated vigour: but we shall leave our readers to decide whether this circumstance is to be regarded as a proof of the soundness of the doctrine.

Dr. Cullen Brown controverts, at some length, the unfavorable opinion which Dr. Beddoes expresses respecting the merits of Brown's style of Latin composition. Dr. Beddoes conceived that it displays a "labored perplexity" of manner; whereas it is maintained, in the work before us, 'that, since the days of Erasmus and Buchanan, no medical work has appeared in Latin, which, by a competent, intelligent and candid judge, in point of classical purity, energy, perspicuousness, and pregnant brevity, can be said, in any degree, to equal the style of the *Elementa*.' On this point, we feel obliged to dissent from the opinion of the editor; and however low an idea he may form of our critical acumen, we do not hesitate to declare that we consider Brown's Latin as obscure and turgid, and frequently consisting of long and perplexed periods; the words that are employed may be pure and classical, but their arrangement is certainly not deserving of those epithets.

In tracing the progress of his father's doctrine, the editor gives an account of the ferment which it occasioned, not only in the University of Edinburgh, but in some of the most distinguished medical schools on the continent. 'In Italy, in particular,' we are informed, 'the Brunonian system has found many warm admirers, as well as some opposers. As in other countries, candour, talent, and learning generally characterise the writings of the former; while ignorance, illiberality, and petulance, are commonly the prominent features of those of the latter.' Our readers will observe, from this quotation, that the son has not degenerated from the spirit of his father; and as an additional proof of this fact, we may request their attention to the manner in which he endeavours to controvert the objections made by Hufeland against some of the Brunonian doctrines:

'It would have been almost incredible to conceive, did not the fact stand upon record, that a man of Dr. Hufeland's reputation could have avowed sentiments so erroneous, and which so decidedly argue his ignorance of the principles of the new doctrine. His view of the system is so superficial and incomplete, as not to convey the most distant idea of its nature; his objections are trite, irrelevant, and unjust; his mixed praise and censure repugnant to, and incompatible with each other; and the proposed conjunction of the Brunonian doctrine with the preposterous chemical system, maintained in Germany by a few crazy people, misled by the extravagant and incomprehensible philosophy of

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Reil and Kant, is an overture at which common sense revolts. This language may appear indecorous; but it proceeds from the indignation excited, first by the misrepresentation of the new doctrine, and next by the proposed improvement of it, by its unnatural union with one (if indeed it be allowable to dignify *it* with such a name) engendered in the delirious brains of a set of men, as mad in usurping the name of philosophers, as the happier lunatic, mentioned by Horace, who fancied himself owner of all the ships that sailed along Hellespont.'

It is no doubt possible that a good cause may be ill defended: but certainly it does not argue in favour of any doctrine or set of opinions, that their advocates deem it necessary to treat their opponents with the arrogance here displayed.

The first of the objections which are started by Hufeland is that,

"1. On the principles of the above theory, *it is impossible to explain in what manner rest as well as exercise invigorates the system*; for, if the human body has received from nature its determinate portion of excitability, and life consists only in a successive exhaustion of it, *nonconsumption may indeed preserve, but surely never can increase, it.*"

This objection, which our readers will be aware is nearly similar to what has been frequently urged before, the editor attempts to repel by supposing that the body is furnished with a continued supply of excitability by means of the process of digestion; and he observes that 'the process of digestion, which is always best performed in a state of rest, is gradually going on, and by the conversion of the food first into chyle, and then into blood, is adding fresh matter to the waste of the system, to the seat, or matter, in which the excitability is inherent, and consequently is occasioning an accumulation of the principle itself.' We may here remark, 1. that the repair of the material fabric of the body is a distinct operation from that of the excitability which resides in this material fabric; and it does not by any means necessarily follow that these effects must be contemporaneous: 2. we apprehend that this is altogether an addition to the original system of Brown; for we do not recollect that this circumstance is once suggested in the whole course of the *Elementa*, and there are some strong expressions which seem to prove that his sentiments were directly the reverse: 3. this idea, that the digestion assists in recruiting the excitability, is neither more nor less than the opinion maintained by Hufeland himself; against which we meet with so much violent and indecorous declamation.

Though the editor thinks that 'every proposition of the doctrine, when duly investigated, appears so plain, and the reasoning so forcible and conclusive, that while it bids defiance

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to refutation, it scarcely requires the aid of illustration;' yet he has thought it proper to add, for the benefit of the unenlightened, a summary exposition drawn up by M. Bertin.

Besides a translation of the *Elementa Medicinæ*, these volumes contain 'Observations on former systems of medicine,' 'Outlines of the new doctrines,' and 'Observations on the present system of spasm as taught in the University of Edinburgh.' The former of these papers may be considered as an epitome of the *Elements*, and indeed consists principally of quotations from that work. The observations on spasm contain an attack on the Cullenian theory of fever, conducted with some ability, and much virulence.

As to the merits of Dr. Brown's great work, the public opinion, at least in this country, has at length become nearly unanimous. Personal animosity is now laid aside; and even in the University of Edinburgh, his doctrines are canvassed with freedom, both by students and by professors. The result is well known, their advocates are daily declining, and it is probable that in a few years they will be extinct. The hypothesis, however, has not been without its use, both as to the theory and the practice of medicine; and perhaps it may be said to have had more influence in this respect than any of its predecessors. The great merit of Brown, and that indeed in which he excelled former speculatists, is that he avoided all misplaced application of other sciences, and endeavoured to establish the laws of vitality from observing the phænomena of life itself. He did not look on the animal body as an hydraulic machine, consisting of a system of tubes and vessels; nor as a laboratory, in which a number of chemical operations were going on: but he noticed the effects that were produced on it by different agents, and from these observations constructed his hypothesis. Thus far he acted philosophically: but in the detail he was less fortunate; his mind was better adapted for striking out the grand outline, than for filling it up by a close attention to facts.

Dr. Brown's first error appears to have been that of confounding together the operations of the nervous and the muscular systems, and making his principle of excitability one and indivisible. The distinction between irritability and sensibility he totally disregarded, and thus deprived himself of the benefit of one of the most important discoveries of modern science. The position, that every Being is provided at birth with a certain portion of excitability which is continually wasting, and for which there is no source of supply, has been often noticed, as involving the hypothesis in insuperable difficulties. The favourite dogma, that life is a forced state, we regard as not less

objectionable. What idea are we to attach to the term life? are we to understand by it the property which is possessed by the animal of being acted on, or the actions themselves? If the former, we should say that the properties of irritability and sensibility exist independently of any foreign agency, as long as the texture of the body remains unimpaired; and, as far as we are able to discover, they are qualities absolutely essential to its existence:—but, if by the term life be meant the actions produced by the living body in consequence of the affection of its inherent powers, what more is asserted by this than that every effect must have its appropriate cause? The deduction from the position, that life is a forced state, produced the monstrous assertion that the operation of all medicines must be stimulant; a doctrine which caused one of the most pertinacious contests of theory against experience, which has occurred in the history of modern science. With what sentiments are we to regard the hypothesis that all stimuli possess the same identical power; and that the difference in their effects may be reduced to a difference in degree? The period, we apprehend, is not far distant, when it will be a matter of astonishment to the medical philosopher, that such a doctrine could ever have been advanced; and he can only view it as one of those singular aberrations of judgment, by which the mind is occasionally perverted, when it becomes heated by an enthusiastic attachment to a particular party or set of opinions.

If we find such weighty objections against the admission of the general principles of this doctrine, how many more obstacles present themselves when we come to apply it to the cure of diseases:—when we find apoplexy, plague, hydrothorax, and phthisis, placed in the same class; when we are informed that the remedies for them are powerful stimuli; and when we observe typhus, gout, scurvy, and dropsy, classed together in the opposite end of the scale, as depending on a directly opposite state of the body! Such an arrangement, if indeed it can deserve that name, is worthy of the writer who declaims against paying attention to the symptoms of diseases; and who condemns, as useless labour, all research concerning the means by which we attempt to discriminate them from each other *.

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* See Outlines, Vol. i. p. 98.

ART. IV. *An Abstract of the whole Doctrine of the Christian Religion*, with Observations. By John Anastasius Freylinghausen, Minister of St. Ulrich's Church, and Inspector of the Public School, at Hall, in Germany. From a Manuscript in her Majesty's Possession. Imperial 8vo. 12s. Boards. Cadell and Co.

SCHEMES of Theology and bodies of Divinity afford less satisfaction to the intelligent reader, than their titles promise to confer. Those who undertake to compose articles of faith, or to exhibit abstracts of every thing necessary to be believed, are in general liable greatly to exceed all reasonable limits; and, under the influence of education or system, to represent the Christian Religion, which is beautifully simple in itself, as embarrassed with strange and perplexing dogmas. From a German Divine of the Lutheran Communion, we did not expect to receive a summary of *credenda* which we should peruse with pleasure, or which was calculated for the meridian of Great Britain; and though Mr. Freylinghausen's Abstract is recommended by a circumstance which does it much honour, and has been altered in certain places by the Editor to accommodate it to the doctrines of the Church of England, it exhibits in our estimation a character which must prevent it from becoming popular in this country: It includes 27 articles, the substance of which the author undertakes to explain in the form of question and answer: but we are persuaded that his illustrations will here obtain for him little reputation either as a divine or as a philosopher. On the subject of the Creation, he informs his pupils that, on the third day, when the dry land appeared, it '*spontaneously* brought forth various plants and herbs,' as if these productions were independent of divine power; and that 'much of this immense work (the creation) had been the result of the mere laws of motion*;' though he says afterward that it was effected 'merely by the Almighty will, without either preparation or fatigue, producing visible things from things that were before invisible.' He adds that God performed his work in six days, 'partly to instruct us properly to imploy the six days allotted to our labours; and partly perhaps to give *a secret prognostic of the duration of the world.*'

To the question who is the Creator? the answer is, 'The Almighty Triune God;' and in the Observations subjoined, we are informed that 'all the external operations of the Divinity are equally attributed to the three persons; but that the *internal*, or such as are performed in the very bosom of the Divinity, belong to one or two of the persons in particular.'

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* Does this lecturer suppose that laws of motion existed previously to the existence of matter?

A long chapter is assigned to the subject of Angels, in which the difference among them is specified; and to the question How do the wicked Angels employ themselves? this answer is given:

'In the same manner as the good angels have their particular functions allotted them, so also are the devils in constant employment; but all their operations tend to counteract the will of God, and subvert the happiness of man; having not only been the original cause of the fall of man, but being still continually busied in preventing his knowledge of the newly-revealed salvation through Christ, in endeavouring to divert the faithful from it, and in seeking to devour them.

'*Obs.*—Bad angels are thus employed: 1st, With *wicked men*, who are called *children of the devil*, on account of their resemblance to him; in striving to keep them in his subjection; in blinding their minds, and snatching away the word from their hearts; in enticing them to evil, by suggesting evil thoughts, and furnishing occasions for sinful deeds; in seeking every means to hurt them, and to shorten the period of their lives. 2dly, With *the godly*, to whom, however, they must, in spite of themselves and of all their efforts, be in the end serviceable; in endeavouring to seduce them; in seeking every opportunity to afflict them; inwardly by the suggestion of evil thoughts and desires; and outwardly by exposing them to various troubles and misfortunes; in accusing them before God, in order to lessen his favour towards them, and to induce him to chastise them; in striving to hurt them by every possible means, and particularly to molest them at the hour of death.'

To justify the last assertion, a reference is made to 2 Cor. xii. 7: but we can find nothing in this text to authorize such an opinion.

Miracles are divided into *immediate* and *mediate*: i. e. into such as God performs merely through his own omnipotence, and such as he effects by the use of means or instruments. This division we understand: but we cannot comprehend Mr. F.'s meaning in the subjoined 'N. B.—when God works miracles by the means of angels, they are not, strictly speaking, miracles, but are only called so with regard to the common laws of nature.'

On the Sacrifice of Christ, it is remarked 'that he hath actually performed all their duties, and hath fully satisfied God in all things that he requires of men.' After this view of the Christian Doctrine, the reflecting reader will be surprized at being informed that Mr. F. has given a section or chapter on the Final Judgment of Mankind.

The meaning of Christ's *descent into Hell* is thus explained: 'Soon after his resurrection he repaired, *body* and soul, to the abodes of the devils and of the damned, both to shew himself to them as their conqueror and to *terrify* them.' We must

honestly tell Mr F. that this is something *more* than the *whole* of the Christian doctrine. He acknowleges, indeed, that 'the proofs of this doctrine are somewhat obscure:' but it would have been nearer the truth to have said that there is not *any* proof for it.

Original Sin (a term introduced by St. Austin in the 4th century) is defined to be 'That horrid corruption of our nature which all men inherit by their carnal birth, as a spiritual infection; and to consist in a *total* incapacity* for and alienation from what is good, and a propensity to evil.' On the supposition, however, of a *total* incapacity for good, all exhortations calling man to repentance and virtue must be perfectly absurd, as requiring actions from them which they are absolutely incapable of performing.

The causes of the Fall of Man are said to be *external* and *internal*. Of the first, Mr. F. remarks: 'The *external* cause, or the seducer, was Satan, (Moses does not mention him, as he only relates the event extrinsically), who made use of and possessed a natural serpent for that purpose, that he might approach Eve the more unnoticed; the serpent being probably an animal for which she entertained a fondness.'

We could give other specimens from this work: but the above, we apprehend, will be sufficient to prove that the author has never been in the habit of thinking much to the purpose for himself, and is poorly qualified to instruct others.

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Art. V. *The History of France*, Civil and Military, Ecclesiastical, Political, Literary, Commercial, &c. &c. From the Time of its Conquest by Clovis, A.D. 486. By the Rev. Alexander Ranken, D. D. one of the Ministers of Glasgow. Vol. III. From the Accession of Hugh Capet, A.D. 987, to the Accession of St. Lewis, A.D. 1226. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

It would be ungrateful, if we did not acknowlege that we have travelled agreeably and pleasantly with this compiler over the beaten ground which he has chosen to explore. His selection of matter is judicious, his statements are perspicuous, and his arrangement is well chosen. In the course of the period which the present volume embraces, the history of

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* The author's remarks at p. 84. cannot be reconciled with this representation. 'Man hath, after his fall, retained a *will* which may in so far be called *free*, because in earthly and temporal things he has a free choice of his actions. This freedom extends also to all those external actions which are the first steps towards conversion; such as the hearing and reading of the word of God, &c.; and likewise to the leading of a virtuous life.'—If man be capable of the first step towards conversion, how can he be totally incapable of what is good?

France grows in interest by combining itself more and more with that of Europe; and the times were fruitful in events which have had a permanent influence on the state of the world. The elevation of a new French Dynasty, the conquest of England by the Normans, the Crusades, the consolidation of the French monarchy, and the religious wars of Thoulouse, here distinguish the annals of that empire. Moreover, the reign, with which the volume before us commences, will at the present moment engage the greater attention, as being that of the founder of a dynasty which includes a longer succession of kings than any which the history of the western world records, and of the subversion of which we of this age have been the astonished witnesses.

The degraded state of the royal authority, the reduced situation and the mental imbecility of the reigning family, the favour of the church, and the influence of nobles, rendered easy the passage of Hugh Capet to a pre-eminence which was little more than nominal; the throne being at this time connected with more of duty than of either power or splendour. Hugh was besides the most potent of the chieftains of the age; his territory served as a barrier to the rest of the kingdom against the Normans; and he united to the first military renown the highest rank, and superior personal accomplishments. At this remote epoch, artifices were played off extremely resembling those which, on a similar occasion, have been practised under our own eyes:

'Considering the imbecility of the race, the veneration of the people for them could not be great: caution, however, was necessary, to prevent that sympathy, which sometimes unexpectedly kindles into zeal in favour of the injured: it was of importance to rouse and confirm prejudices against Charles duke of Lorraine, uncle of the deceased Lewis V., the only surviving legal heir of the crown. It was carefully circulated that he had voluntarily abandoned the French interest and nation, by accepting Lorraine as a vassal of the emperor of Germany. Is it becoming the French people, it was urged, to prefer a deserter and foreigner, as their king; to one who had valiantly defended the kingdom, and chased the emperor, the lord paramount of this mean Carlovingian, into his own dominions? The temper of Hugh Capet, his deportment, his manly and royal qualities, were extolled Visions and other instruments of superstition were published, as evidence of the approbation of him by Heaven. A testament of the late king was alleged and urged in his favour. Finally, an assembly of clergy and nobles was held at Noyon, in which he was unanimously chosen; and on the third day of July, A. D. 987, he was solemnly anointed king of France.

'In ascending the throne of France, he had made little or no change, but in the title of duke, as Pepin had formerly done that of mayor, into king. His authority was nominally, but not really increased. The least attempt against the independent state and spirit of the ba-

rons, shewed him the precarious kind of tenure by which he held the crown. "Who made you a count?" said he, to Adelbert of Perigord. Adelbert coolly replied, "Who made you a king?"

We submit to our readers the estimate which the author has formed of the character and conduct of the first sovereign of the Capetian race:

'The name of Hugh Capet is great and venerable; not merely on account of his wisdom and valour, and other personal good qualities, but as the first of a long race of kings, who for eight hundred years occupied the throne of France By the Carlovingians and their friends, and by all impartial and sober minded men, he must have been originally considered as an usurper. For this usurpation, the imbecility of the race, and the insufficiency of the royal domains to maintain the government, present something like an argument of expediency; but when more strictly examined, it is the mere plea of rapacity. It was in fact the success of Hugh Capet, which sanctioned his conspiracy; and the long continuance of his race on the throne that he usurped, which has acquired for him respect and veneration.'

In the late instance of an extraordinary ascent to power in the same nation, though similar general causes conspired to produce the effect, yet, owing to the totally different circumstances of the country, we trace little resemblance between the recent transaction and the corresponding event of the tenth century. In antient France, the choice was naturally directed to the chief who could mediate with most effect in the differences of the great vassals; who could protect the weak from the oppressions of the strong; and who could present adequate resistance to foreign attacks. In the same manner, in modern France, when ten years of anarchy had levelled with the ground every institution which natural feeling and long habit had, with or without reason, endued with revered and imposing characters; when society had become, as it were, reduced to its primitive elements; when the country was at the same time pressed on all sides by a powerful and successful foreign foe, and the people were worn out and disappointed; the prize of the supreme authority became open to mere power, and fell as easy a prey to the intrigues and daring of a popular General, as at an earlier period to those of a mighty territorial chieftain.

That very important era in French history, the successful reign of Philip II., sirnamed Augustus, is described by Dr. Ranken in a full and satisfactory manner. The favourable circumstances which offered themselves to the politic monarch are minutely stated; and the steps taken by him to improve them to the utmost are distinctly pointed out. It was he who laid the basis of the future greatness of the French monarchy. The author thus concludes his account of his reign:

'Such was the end of one of the longest and most prosperous reigns in the history of France; a reign which recovered the monarchy from almost all the weakness and calamities to which the successors of Charlemagne and the feudal system had reduced it. As Philip's birth, so desirable after his father's third marriage without a son, obtained for him the gift of God: so his rapid, important, and extensive conquests; his subjection, in comparison of what it had been, of the aristocracy; his expulsion of the English; and his restoration of the crown to a high degree of respectability among the states of Europe, justly merited, and confirmed to him the title of Augustus.'

We have formerly observed that the author of this work has adopted the arrangement of Dr. Henry; a method which we do not regard as in a general view so eligible as the long established mode of blending, more or less, with the civil and military history, the topics which are here discussed under formal divisions. These subjects do not belong to France or England exclusively, but to all the christian states of Europe.—Under the ecclesiatical division, Dr. Ranken gives a very elaborate account of the Albigenses, and the other anticatholics against whom the war of Thoulouse was directed. He repels, with great plausibility, the calumnies thrown out against them by the catholics, and which have been adopted (as he thinks) with too little caution by some protestants of great name. The supposed conformity between their discipline, and that to which the learned Doctor belongs, inclines him to support the account which traces this religious community to a very remote antiquity; and the presumptions which he adduces of their superior purity, at the time of the crusade against them, are conclusive in their vindication. They appear to have been the precursors of the Lollards, Hussites, reformers, and puritans of subsequent periods; and the Geneva platform, it is most likely, was fashioned after their model. The author's representations of Berenger's conduct in the controversy with regard to the eucharist, of the quarrel of Abelard and St. Bernard, of the lofty ambition indulged by the daring Hildebrand, of the disputes concerning investitures, and of the rise of the inquisition, add no inconsiderable interest to this part of the work.

As elucidating the height which superstition had reached in these times, the succeeding passage is important:

'The ceremonies employed to prepare the sacramental bread, were comparatively trivial and foolish: they properly preferred the best kind of wheaten flour; but they selected the grains of it singly with their hands; they then washed it, and put it in a sack made for the purpose: a servant of approved cleanliness and sanctity was entrusted to carry it to the mill; the grinding-stones were carefully washed and cleaned; covered with a priestly robe over all his body, head, and face,

face, his eyes excepted, he superintended the grinding, and devoutly sifted the flour. Two priests and two deacons, in their official dress, afterwards baked it with cold water, to preserve its whiteness, and formed it into suitable thin, small, round pieces, and, in latter times, into wafers. A novice was employed to toast them; the wood was dry, prepared, and charred for the purpose; and psalms were sung during the work. Such was the practice at Clugni, as related by Ulric, in his collection of the customs of that monastery.'

Dr. Ranken has elaborately traced the several steps which led to the final abolition of slavery in France. The view which is here taken of the rise of cities is also not less deserving of attention. The Doctor supposes, with reason, that some of these incorporations retained a part of the antient liberties and immunities conferred on them by the Romans; that they enjoyed their magistrates, their peculiar customs, and their revenue; that this was the case particularly with Paris, Lyons, and Marseilles; and he observes that, in some of the earliest charters, it is expressly said that the royal grants are founded on their antient customs and practice.

Our readers in general are perhaps not aware that, among the goddesses of chivalry who received the adorations of gallant and unsullied knights, many shone not less in mental culture than they excelled in personal charms:

'Females, who had long been excluded, during the ages of turbulence, and extreme disorder, from general intercourse, returned in the eleventh and twelfth centuries with increased influence over society. They not only partook of the amusement of arms, but many of them received an education similar nearly to that of the most learned men. They were qualified to engage, and are found to have sometimes assisted, in the literary contests of the schoolmen. Without the knowledge of Latin they could not even be received into a monastery; and when that language was familiar to them, the whole treasures of learning were unlocked and easily accessible. The letters of Eloisa shew the degree of elegance to which some of them attained in writing that language: and, with similar genius and diligence, many of them might equal her in the philosophy and eloquence of the times. Others had the same means and motives with her to cultivate learning, and they were surely incommoded with fewer distractions. Female schools and monasteries were extremely numerous; and many individuals in them are recorded to have excelled in the various branches of learning.'

We incline to think that the hint with regard to his style, which we took the liberty of suggesting to Dr. Ranken in a former article, has not been wholly neglected; since we have found the perusal of the present volume far more gratifying in this respect than that of its immediate precursor *: but there is still great room for improvement.

* Vide M.R. N.S. Vol. xxxix. p. 29.

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In turning over these pages, we were frequently led to suppose that we were reading the history of England, and not that of France. Habit, and the predilection of a good citizen, may naturally account for this effect: but we advise the author to be on his guard against it in future. The historian of France should for the time forget his own country; he should be devoted solely to the affairs of the empire of which he treats; and if he shews partiality, it should be in favour of those whose concerns he has undertaken to narrate.—We believe that, on some former occasion, we hazarded a remark which we shall here repeat, for the benefit of our younger readers, because we think that it deserves attention from them; viz. If a person does not render himself deeply and intimately acquainted with the history of France, he will labour in vain to become master of that of any other European country, without excepting even his own. The history of France is not only the best, but the only introduction to that of Europe; and in saying this we have no apprehension that it will be considered as paradoxical, by any who have given attention to matters of this nature.

Though this work be chargeable with several imperfections, we regard it on the whole as a valuable addition to our stores of literature; and we hope that neither the hospitalities of his flock, nor his pastoral visits, not yet the sociable pipe, will prevent the worthy Divine from bringing it with due speed to a close.

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Art. VI. *The Correspondence of the late John Wilkes,* with his Friends; printed from the original Manuscripts; in which are introduced Memoirs of his Life. By John Almon. 12mo. 5 Vols. Boards. 1l. 15s. R. Phillips. 1805.

If we in some respects approve the modern practice of extending biographical details by the liberal interspersion of letters, we are aware that it offers so strong a temptation to prolixity, that, unless the judgment of the editor be on the alert, he will often occasion languor, if not excite impatience. As a case in point, the present memorials of Mr. Wilkes might have been considerably reduced in bulk, without the smallest diminution of interest. Notwithstanding that Mr. Almon undertook to give the correspondence of his hero, he was not bound to copy every trifling letter; and, as he professes not to write Mr. Wilkes's *private* life, most of the literary intercourse between him and his daughter Mary might have been suppressed. Two or three letters would have sufficed to manifest their mutual affection; and we might have been excused from reading

reading about the capons and wheatears which were sent from the father to the daughter, or from the daughter to the father.

We are told in the Preface that 'Mr. W. wrote *some* sketches of *particular parts* of his life, but in such a peculiar style of indulgence, as made them totally improper for the public eye; and after his death, his daughter thought that she could not better shew her gratitude and filial piety, than by burning those sketches.' All persons of delicacy and virtue must applaud Miss Wilkes's conduct in this respect. Enough remains of the particulars of Mr. W.'s 'chequered and memorable life;' and it must be mentioned, to the credit of his present biographer, that he has endeavoured to depict him with fidelity.

These memoirs record Mr. Wilkes's family; his birth on Oct. 17, 1727; his education; his marriage with Miss Mead; the individuals with whom he associated; his first offer of himself as a candidate (unsuccessfully) for Berwick; his being subsequently chosen member for Aylesbury, first in 1757 and again in 1761; the publication of his Observations on the papers relative to the rupture with Spain; his ironical Dedication of Ben Jonson's play, "The Fall of Mortimer," to Lord Bute: the History of the "North Briton, No. 45," the General Warrant by which he was arrested, his papers seized, and he himself sent to the tower; his discharge on writ of Habeas Corpus by the Court of Common Pleas; his Correspondence with the Secretaries of State, and trials of the King's messengers; the consequences which resulted from Mr. Wilkes having erected a printing press in his own house, where a few copies of "the Essay on Woman" were printed, and which involved him in difficulties; his journey to Paris; his return to England; the duel between him and Mr. Martin; his second journey to Paris, during which he was convicted of printing a libel, expelled the House of Commons, and outlawed; his tour to Naples; his employment abroad; his second visit for a short time to England, and the influence on the public mind of his two letters to the Duke of Grafton; his third return, when he is committed to the King's Bench Prison; his Elections and Expulsions from the House of Commons; his being elected a city Alderman, afterwards Sheriff, and Lord Mayor; his appointment to the lucrative office of Chamberlain, by which he was in a great measure liberated from his pecuniary difficulties; his country and town residences; his death (in Dec. 26, 1797,) his will, &c. Among the letters to Mr. Cotes, written from Paris at the time of Wilkes's Parliamentary expulsion, we find one which is worthy of notice on several accounts; and which therefore we shall transcribe. It shews that a diplomatic appointment was an object

object of his ambition, which would have converted him from the bitter foe to an associate of administration; and we know, indeed, that a lucrative city-office had finally the effect of quenching his opposition fire. Yet it should not be overlooked that he first states, in this letter, his opinion that *nothing remained to be done for the public cause.*

'Paris, Hotel de Saxe, January 20, 1764.

'My dearest Cotes,

'Philipps* writes to me in a warm strain, to return immediately; and, from the partial view he takes of my affairs, which is so far as law and the two houses are concerned, I really think him right. You and I, my beloved friend, have more extended views; and therefore, as I have now an opportunity, I will sift it to the bottom, for I am secure of my conveyance. Your letter of the 10th leaves me no doubt of the certainty of my expulsion. Now give me leave to take a peep into futurity. I argue upon the supposition that I was expelled this morning, at one or two o'clock, after a warm debate. I am then, no longer a member of parliament. Of consequence, a political man not in the house is of no importance, and never can be well enough, nor minutely enough, informed, to be of any great service. What then am I to do in England? If I return soon, it is possible that I may be found guilty of the publication of No. 45 of the North Briton, and of the Essay on Woman. I must then go off to France; for no man in his senses would stand Mansfield's sentence upon the publisher of a paper declared by both houses of parliament scandalous, seditious, &c. The Essay on Woman, too, would be considered as blasphemous; and Mansfield would, in that case, avenge on me the old Berwick grudge. Am I then to run the risk of this, and afterwards to confess by going away so critically – as evident a flight as Mahomet's was from Mecca? Surely not.

'But I am to wait the event of these two trials; and Philipps can never persuade me that some risk is not run. I have in my own case experienced the fickleness of the people. I was almost adored one week; the next, neglected, abused, and despised. With all the fine things said and wrote of me, have not the public to this moment left me in the lurch as to the expence of so great a variety of law-suits? I will serve them to the last moment of my life; but I will make use of the understanding God has given me, and will owe neither my security nor indemnity to them. Can I trust likewise a rascally court, who bribe my own servants to steal out of my house? Which of the opposition, likewise, can call on me, and expect my services? I hold no obligation to any of them, but to lord Temple; who is really a superior being. It appears, then, that there is no call of honour.

'I will now go on to the public cause, that of every man,—liberty. *Is there then any one point behind to be tried? I think not.* The two important decisions in the court of common-pleas and at Guildhall, have secured for ever an Englishman's liberty and property. They have

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'* Philipps was now his solicitor.'

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grown out of my firmness, and the affair of the North Briton; but neither in this case are we nor our posterity concerned whether John Wilkes, or John à Nokes, wrote or published the North Briton or the Essay on Woman.

'The public, then, has no call upon me. I have steadily pursued their object; and I may now, after all their huzzas, fall back into the mass of common citizens. Does any one point suffer by my absence? I have not heard that it does. I know that many of the opposition are, to the full, as much embarrassed about my business as the administration, and detest it as much. I believe, both parties will rejoice at my being here. Too many personalities, likewise, have been mixed with my business; and the king himself has taken too great, not to say too indecent, a share in it, to recede. Can it be thought, too, that the princess dowager can ever forgive what she supposes I have done? What then am I to expect if I return to England? Persecution from my enemies; coldness and neglect from friends, except such noble ones as you and a few more. I go on to some other things.

'My private finances are much hurt, by three elections; one at Berwick and two at Aylesbury. Miss Wilkes's education is expensive. I can live here much cheaper than in London. And what is my duty, and you know is the object I have most at heart, her welfare will be better, in every point, ascertained here, with me, than at London. Shall I return to Great George-street, and live at so expensive a house? Forbid it, real economy; and forbid it, pride, to go to another, unless for some great national point of liberty! Perhaps, in the womb of fate, some important public or private event is to turn up. A lucky death often sets all right. Mrs. Mead and Mr. Sherbrooke are both old, and have no relation but Miss Wilkes. She is devoted to me, beyond what you can imagine; and is really all that a fond father can wish. I have taken all possible care of her in every respect. I could live here as well as I wish, for one half of what it will cost me in London; and, when Miss Wilkes was of an age to return to England, not a farthing in debt—which at present oppresses my spirits. I am grown prudent, and will be economical to a great degree.

'If government means peace or friendship with me, and to save their honour (wounded to the quick by Webb's affair), I then breathe no longer hostility. And, between ourselves, *if they would send me ambassador to Constantinople, it is all I should wish.* Mr. Grenville, I am told, solicits his recal. I think, however, the king can never be brought to this, (as to me I mean,) though the ministry would wish it.

'If I stay at Paris, I will not be forgot in England; for I will feed the papers, from time to time, with gall and vinegar against the administration. I cannot express to you how much I am courted here, nor how pleased our inveterate enemies are with the North Briton. Gay felt the pulse of the French ministers about my coming here, and Churchill's, upon the former report. The answer was sent from the duke de Praslin, by the king's orders, to monsieur St. Foy, *premier commis des affaires étrangères,* in these words: 'Les deux illustres

lustres J.W. et C. C. peuvent venir en France et à Paris aussi souvent, et pour autant de tems, qu'ils le jugeront à propos,' &c.

'I am offered the liberty of printing here whatever I choose. I have taken no resolution; nor will I, till I hear again from you. Favour me with your sentiments fully and freely.

'Your most devoted,

'JOHN WILKES.'

In detailing Mr. Wilkes's life, Mr. Almon has done him justice as an author; and to recall our respect for him in this character, he has copied some of his best political publications, particularly his Introduction to the History of England. The connection which subsisted at one period of Mr. W.'s life between him and Mr. Horne Tooke is very slightly noticed, and little of their correspondence is inserted, which rather surprized us. Medmenham Abbey is here described with more *decent reserve*, than in the Edition of the Letters of Mr. Wilkes, &c. printed in 2 Vols. in the year 1769.

As a public man, Mr. Wilkes had considerable merit, and his memory is intitled to the gratitude of his countrymen. With firmness and intrepidity he asserted the great principles of the Constitution; being alike inimical to absolute monarchy and to republicanism. His conduct in the affair of General Warrants rendered him justly popular; and 'the struggle which he made concerning the printing of the Debates in Parliament, forms (as his Editor remarks) an era of some interest in the English history. With respect to the House of Commons, it is certainly a fair and constitutional question—Have not the constituents a right to know the parliamentary proceedings of their representatives?' Since Mr. Wilkes's conduct in the case of the printers, Parliament itself seems to have acknowleged the affirmative of this question. His biographer also observes to his credit, that as a Member of Parliament he was diligent and faithful; that 'a more punctual, patient, penetrating, and discriminating Chamberlain has not filled the office during the last century; and that as a Magistrate also he was equally able, assiduous, candid, and just.'—After having noticed, with satisfaction, Mr. Wilkes's little bark struggling through the agitated waves of stormy faction; after having rejoiced in the success of his ministerial combats, with something of his own enthusiasm; after having followed him through imminent dangers, and seen him, like St. Paul, "in prison and in perils from his own countrymen;" we feel *ennui* at the tameness of much of the correspondence here offered to us, and lose a considerable portion of our respect for the undaunted patriot, when we contemplate him in some parts of his private life which are here exhibited.

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From the testimonials of Mr. W.'s parental affection, as displayed in his letters to his legitimate daughter, we pronounce him to have been a kind parent: but the eulogium must be diminished when we scrutinize his conduct towards his illegitimate children, Mr. John Smith and Miss Harriet Wilkes. To both, we are told, he gave a good education: but, this duty accomplished, it does not appear that he anxiously concerned himself respecting their permanent welfare through the remainder of life. The former was sent to make his fortune in the East Indies, and the trifling sum of one hundred pounds was bequeathed to him as a legacy; apparently, indeed, he provided better for his daughter Harriet: but as Mr. W. died *insolvent*, no substantial proof of partiality in her favour was really produced. As a husband, no man ever behaved worse. We shall not discuss the reasons by which he strove to justify his separation from his wife: but we shall content ourselves with remarking that no defence can be made for the act of endeavouring to swindle her out of the annuity which he settled on her when they parted. The biographer admits that 'this was the worst feature in Mr. Wilkes's character.' He shews, however, a few more bad features. Mr. Barnard's suspicions respecting Mr. W. and Mrs. B. are allowed to be well founded; and with relation to promises, he did not adhere to Ariosto's maxim:

> "*Senza giurarè ò segno altro piu espresso*
> *Basti una volta che s'habbia promesso.*"

The breach of such sacred engagements seems to have been productive of the most acute and heart-felt disappointment to the widow and daughter of the celebrated Mr. Sterne. In conjunction with Mr. Hall, Mr. Wilkes had promised to write *the life of Tristram;* and to procure a subscription among his numerous acquaintance for this publication, the profits of which were intended to alleviate the pecuniary distresses of Mrs. and Miss Sterne, who were forced to retire to France. The letters from the young lady to Mr. W. and Mr. Hall will speak for themselves. They are "trumpet-tongued" against the cruel breach of Mr. W.'s word; and the note of the Editor, ('neither of these gentlemen performed their promise,') though given with no moral indignation, will serve to excite that feeling in the reflecting reader.

In the numerous letters of Mr. W. to his daughter, we find little or no amusement. Those which were written during his tour from Paris to Naples, and in which some entertainment might have been expected, are, to use a military term, little more than *an affair of posts;* and his journies to Bath, to the coast, &c. are equally barren. Miss Wilkes's letters, in this

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age of writing ladies, merit little praise in point of elegance; and, excepting her good French, we should not hence suppose that she was so highly accomplished as she has been represented. The subjects are principally domestic arrangements; and the frequent recurrence of articles for the larder, in Mr. W's letters, is rather disgusting. An Alderman is a kind of proverbial *gourmand*; and Mr. Wilkes here gives ample proofs of his judgment and taste in the science of eating. If he was not the very best caterer for the soul, perhaps few ever exceeded him as a caterer for the body.

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ART. VII. *Letters from the Year* 1774 *to the Year* 1796. By John Wilkes, Esq. addressed to his Daughter, the late Miss Wilkes: with a Collection of his miscellaneous Poems. To which is prefixed A Memoir of the Life of Mr. Wilkes. 4 Vols. 12mo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co.

WHAT evil star could have presided in Paternoster Row, when those generally cautious characters, the booksellers, were reduced to give 'a liberal price' for this collection of letters! Where must have been their judgment, or what must they have thought of that of the public? Mr. Almon, alluding we suppose to this series, pronounced the letters to be 'utterly insignificant and trifling;' and justice obliges us to add that we have not found reason to reverse his sentence. The Editor, indeed, informs us that this work, so far from interfering with Mr. Almon's publication, is in fact a supplement to it; being a continuation of Mr. Wilkes's correspondence with Miss Wilkes, from the year 1780 (beyond which Mr. Almon's edition of the letters of the father to his daughter does not extend) to so late a period as 1796:—but what is this continuation?—a mere tissue of bagatelles, uninteresting for the most part to all excepting the persons concerned, and only serving to prove that the philosophy of the writer was a mixture of that of Epicurus and Democritus. We are choaked with the string of eating memoranda; and if sparks of wit and humour occasionally appear, they peep out between sides of venison, legs of mutton, rabbits, lobsters, capons, soles, pipers, pork griskins, &c. Some of the letters are merely *notes*, which contain little more than ". Pray send me a *Haunch of Venison*, and the last *Monthly Review*."—The most amiable trait of Mr. W.'s private character was his fondness for his daughter, for whom he seems to have entertained as enthusiastic an affection as that of Madame de Sevigné for the Comtesse de Grignan. Yet even of this we have too much; and we think that the world would

would have lost nothing, had these letters been for ever concealed from their view.

One benefit, however, has resulted from this publication. It has occasioned a *second* memoir of Mr. Wilkes, written with more spirit and force of language, with more acuteness of remark, and with a wider scope of reflection, than we find in that which was given to us by Mr. Almon. The political principles for which Mr. W. contended are here fully stated, and the errors of his opponents are ably exposed. We shall not follow the biographer in his regular historical march through the several periods of his hero's life, because the prominent traits of it must be fresh in the memories of most of our readers, and because we have cursorily adverted to them in the preceding article: but we shall transcribe, for the gratification of the lovers of the British Constitution, the luminous observations of this writer on the conduct of the House of Commons, and the state of parties relative to the Middlesex election, in the year 1769:

'On the 13th of April Mr. Wilkes was, a fourth time elected by a majority of 1143 votes, against Mr. Luttrell, who had only 296. The same day the House of Commons resolved "that Mr. Luttrell ought to have been returned." On the 29th of April a petition was presented by Sir George Saville, from the freeholders of Middlesex, declaring that their intention was not, in voting for Mr. Wilkes, to throw away those votes, or waive their right of representation, and praying therefore against the return of Mr. Luttrell. Notwithstanding which it was finally determined, on the 8th of May, "that Mr. Luttrell was duly elected." Mr. Wilkes's contests, like the battles of Homer, arose one above the other in progressive majesty. Not *within* the walls of the legislative assemblies only were they fought, but *without* also; in the wider plains of literature, of *general* intellect, and *general* feeling. In this, his fiercest and most important fight, the immortals descended into the war. The gravity of Johnson, biassed by its favourite political prepossessions, brought forward to the aid of power its impressive weight. The sage Blackstone, with his book of wisdom, the characters of which were attempted to be read against him, supported also the cause of ministers. Burke, more subtle, if less vehement than in latter days, broke his lance in defence of popular right; Burke, supporting as utility seemed to him to require, the people or the throne; and turning, like the poet's feigned Almanzor, in favour of the weaker side, the scale of fortune. Above all, the fiery, and the rapid, Junius, in dazzling armour, but his beaver down, coursed along the lists, scattering lightnings round him. Nor were the thunders rolled in the senate less awful than the eloquence of the press. Lord Chatham, how much soever he had once personally condemned Mr. Wilkes, was now, with the fulness of his great soul, of his party; for his party was that of the constitution. He quoted Lord Sommers and Lord Holt; "he called them honest men, who knew and loved the English constitution. I vow to God

(to Lord Mansfield, who defended the measures of the majority,) I vow to God, I think your Lordship equals them both in *abilities*. The House of Lords is privileged to interfere, in the case of an invasion of the people's liberties, and the case of the county of Middlesex *is* a case of such invasion."

'When the passions cease to be interested, a conclusion is often without difficulty arrived at, which is in vain sought for, whilst they are alive and at work. They are busy artists, and throw, with intellectual prisms, the hue of inclination upon almost every object.

'The *pour* and the *contre* of this question were doubtless agitated in its day with much and equal sincerity by many. With many it still, possibly, continues to be a question of intricacy. But as the great *British* Statesman* asserted to his constituents, with relation to the necessity of the late war, that it admitted of an easier and more positive decision than questions of a similar nature usually did: so, certainly, it appears to me, that "the Middlesex case" is of a far less dubitable nature than it was accounted at the time. It was by the Charter, the Great Charter of our Liberties, clearly settled, "that no freeman shall be disseised of his freehold, or liberties, or free customs, unless by the lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land." It is also settled, by the decision of our highest court of judicature, "that every man has a right to his freehold by the common law; and the law having annexed the right of voting to his freehold, it is of the nature of his freehold, and must depend upon it." "It is absurd to say, the electors' right of choosing is founded upon the law and custom of Parliament. It is an original right, part of the constitution of the kingdom, as much as is Parliament, from whence the persons elected to serve in Parliament derive their authority, and can have no other but that which is given to them, by those that have the original right to choose them." The right of the electors to choose whom they please, is not indeed disputed; but it is said, they can only choose those who are legally capable of being chosen, and that an expelled member by the law of Parliament, which is the law of the land, is incapable of being elected into the same Parliament.

'The precedents on the Journals opposed each other. In 1698 a Mr. Wollaston was expelled, re-elected, and admitted to take his seat in the same sessions. Only thirteen years after, Mr. Walpole "having been this session of Parliament committed a prisoner to the Tower of London, and expelled this House for an high breach of trust in the execution of his office, and notorious corruption when Secretary at War," was voted "to have been and to be incapable of being elected a member to serve in the present Parliament."

'* The recollection, that the great statesman alluded to *thought* in early life of this measure as the ministers of the day *acted*, ought to be an antidote to the vanity, which would tempt any of us to treat with arrogance those who hold opinions adverse to our own. He then was only beginning to think, or at the least had not learnt to think *alone*. Whilst he, however, was Secretary of State, was this resolution expunged from the Journals.'

'It

'It is remarkable, that the resolution which seated Mr. Luttrell agreed in form with neither of the cited precedents. Both those resolutions not only mentioned the expulsion, but also mentioned its cause. The vote that excluded Mr. Wilkes, upon all the returns, assigned as the *sole* cause of his incapacity his expulsion, shutting out *intentionally* from the consideration of the electors, whether such expulsion was founded upon reasonable grounds or not. Nor was this the only point in which the resolution differed from the precedents upon which it was said to be built. Mr. Walpole being returned a second time, and having a majority of votes, was adjudged incapable; but his opponent was not seated—the election was declared void Mr. Luttrell, on the contrary, was received at once as the legal representative. Even according to their own construction of the law of Parliament, the majority acted irregularly. But surely it may justly be doubted, whether a practice (that of considering expulsion as virtually the same with incapacitation) of so late a date as this in question, were it even more clear and undoubted than it really is; so long subsequent also to the establishment of those laws by which the freeholders sustained their right, ought in justice to control or supersede that right? Surely it was rashness to conclude, because the borough of Lynn acquiesced in the exclusion of Mr. Walpole, the House of Commons assigning a most striking cause for their conduct, and sending back to the burgesses the member, to whom a minority of votes had been given, either to be rejected or re-chosen as the electors thought fit—that therefore the county of Middlesex was bound to acquiesce in the exclusion of him whom they had re-elected, no reason being given to them for his rejection but that he had been expelled—and that Mr Luttrell should represent them without further appeal to their desires? Whether it be not fit to allow the House the power of expulsion, for flagrant offences, in the first instance, is not contested. The sending the member back to his constituents on such ground might be deemed a proper appeal to them; and it is not likely that the constituents would *often* differ, were the cause of expulsion assigned, from the judgment of those who appealed to them. If they persevered in so doing, their perseverance ought either to be submitted to (for in them is lodged the choice); or should the object be indeed so important, the incapacity should be made an act of the legislature at large. If the resolution now stood on the Journals, a *discretionary* power of disabling whom they would, would at this day be vested in the House. For any offence, political or moral, a majority might expel, and a member once expelled would instantly be thrown aside from public service into the obscure Siberian desert of inactivity; a dreary region "unquam unde redire negatur" till a seven years penance should have expiated his arbitrarily imputed sins;

> "Till the foul crimes, done in his days of nature,
> Are burnt and purg'd away."
>
> "His demum exactis, perfecto temporis orbe,
> Devenere locos lætos, et amœna vireta
> Fortunatorum nemorum, sedesque beatas."

'But it perhaps might be feared, that although within the guarded pale of this new elysium of purity and innocence, the "pii vates,"

"Quique sui memores alios fecere merendo—"

the bestowers of gifts and favours, might still be found; yet that the free band "qui *ob patriam* pugnando vulnera passi," as well as the "casti sacerdotes," would be banished to "another air."

In this view of the case, it is a happy circumstance for the country that, after a series of unsuccessful efforts, Mr. Wilkes as last obtained the obliteration of this resolution from the Journals of the House.

Mr. Wilkes's character exemplified much of foresight, decision, and unconquerable steadiness. Of his style as a writer of prose, it is justly remarked:

'That it is not impassioned, but it has sprightliness, fertility of allusion, aptness of quotation, and terseness of phrase: it has also a careless air of anglicism, which is not displeasing, and which he much affected. His irony is playful, and sometimes poignant; and through all his writings there is a vein of curious knowledge, such as a man of pleasure would not naturally be expected to possess.'

To Mr. W.'s poetical talents, we can offer no high tribute of commendation. Apollo does not appear to have "marked him for his own." His lines intitled "A well known Character" [Mr. Garrick] are replete with malignity; and vindictive poets are not aware that unless satire has some respect for truth, the envenomed arrow flies at random, and wastes its poison on the desert air. Who can say of Garrick, once the idol of the public, that he had 'half wit and half sense?'—The Epitaph on the Rev. Mr. Lloyd has more poetry, and is more creditable to the writer's heart. We shall copy it:

'Inscription in the Church-yard of Bala, in Merionethshire.

Sacred to the Memory
of
Evan Lloyd, Clerk, A.M.
of this Parish.
Born May 2, 1734; Died Jan. 26, 1776;
Aged 42.

'Oh! pleasing poet, friend for ever dear,
Thy memory claims the tribute of a tear:
In thee was join'd whate'er mankind admire,
Keen wit, strong sense, the poet's, patriot's fire.
Temper'd with gentleness, such gifts were thine,
Such gifts with heart-felt anguish we resign.'

The biographer tells us that Mr. W.'s letter to the King was delivered by his servant at Buckingham Gate; whereas Mr. Almon says that it was presented by Sir Joseph Mawbey. Mr. A. makes

makes no mention of the present condition of Mr. John Smith, Mr. W.'s natural son: but we are here informed that he is opulently and respectably situated in India. Moy.

ART. VIII. *Practical Discourses.* By the Rev. Richard Warner, Curate of St. James's Parish, Bath. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Robinson.

IN a dedication prefixed to the second of these volumes, Mr. Warner takes notice of the prevailing vices of the times; and though his zeal, we think, has led him to exaggerate, he appears to be actuated by the purest motives, and to be aiming at the best ends. Enumerating Clerical Deficiencies, he takes occasion to animadvert on that "zeal without knowlege," which involves in one general anathema all those whose consciences and convictions keep them without the pale of the establishment; and he censures that popish spirit, which denies the covenanted mercies of God in Christ to those who do *not* seek them through the channel of *human articles*, or the media of certain forms of *Church* government. In this part of his address, he introduces a note which records an instance of bigotry and inconsistency that is scarcely credible; and which, on account of the admirable reprehension of such conduct, and its contrast with the very opposite sentiments of a great ornament of the church and of letters, we shall here insert.

'In confirmation of these observations on the absence of charity in the Clerical character with regard to our Dissenting Brethren, we may adduce an high *orthodox* authority, the Author of the "Guide to the Church," and the "Vindiciæ Ecclesiæ Anglicanæ," &c. who, in contradiction to his own sentiments, respecting ecclesiastical regimen, and episcopal authority*, omitted, in performing the solemn service of the last Fast-Day, at Christ's Church, Bath, (of which he is lecturer) the following passage from one of its prayers; a passage, beautiful on account of the true Christian spirit which it breathes, and interesting from the novelty of the introduction of such sentiments, in such a liturgy, and on such an occasion: "And give us all grace, to put away from us all rancour of religious dissention, that they who agree in the essentials of our most holy faith, and look for pardon through the merits and intercession of the Saviour, may, notwithstanding their differences upon points of doubtful opinion, and in the forms of external worship, still be united in the bonds of Christian charity, and fulfil thy blessed Son's commandment, of loving one another, as He hath loved them." Will posterity believe that such a spirit could have been manifested by a Protestant Minister in the

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"* A second mark of the *negative* kind which demonstrates the possessors of it not to be under the influence of the true spirit, is *disobedience to rule and order, and contempt of lawful authority.*"

DAUBENY's Trial of the Spirits, p. 64.'

nineteenth century? *Tantæne animis cœlestibus iræ?* Will it not rather suspect that such compliments to the *saving influence of Episcopacy*, at the expence of all other modifications of ecclesiastical government, savour more of *carnal passion* than of defecated love; that they are not the pure disinterested offspring of a *spiritual* attachment to the impalpable beauties of the *hierarchal form*, but rather the result of a pious aspiration after the tangible splendours of the *substantial mitre?* In what a different, more judicious, and more Christian-like point of view, did the liberal PARR regard this conciliating paragraph in the Fast prayer. "In truth, (says he) I think the general spirit and the general matter of that service highly honourable to the good-sense, the taste, and the piety of the persons who composed it. My heart, I confess, is always refreshed by the perusal of those supplications to Heaven, which are calculated at once to satisfy the enlightened and conscientious members of the Established Church, and to conciliate Christians, who dissent from it peaceably and sincerely. Such supplications are, I am sure, conformable to the benevolent genius of our holy religion; and for the best ends, they exhibit the best principles of that Church which, among other excellent lessons conveyed to us, in its publick forms of devotion, has instructed us to pray that 'GOD, the Father of our Lord JESUS CHRIST,' who is 'our only Saviour and the *Prince of Peace*, would take from us *all hatred and prejudice*, and whatsoever else may hinder us from godly union and concord; and that as there is but one body and one spirit, and *one hope* of our calling; one LORD, one faith, one baptism, ONE GOD AND FATHER OF US ALL; so we may henceforth be all of one heart and one soul, united in one holy bond of truth and peace, of faith and charity.' "Be it observed, to the credit of the Church of England, that the prayer in which the foregoing words are contained, is annually read upon a state occasion; and to the honour of the present age be it remembered, that the heavenly spirit of that prayer is infused into the service for the late Fast."

Pulpit discourses may be good compositions without being good sermons. In performances of this nature, we look for a style and manner suited to the solemn topics of which they treat, and to the important objects to which they are directed. Instead of setting down precepts by which these may be attained, we recommend it to the candidate for distinction in the sacred profession, to peruse and reperuse the works of this kind which are bequeathed to us by our choice Divines; by Barrow, Atterbury, Sherlock, Duchal, Jortin, Secker, Blair, Hurd, Porteus, and many others. Let him be thoroughly conversant with the invaluable pious labours of these great and good men: let him imbibe the spirit of their compositions; and his discourses will be truly Christian exhortations, partaking of the genuine unction of the sanctuary. We have little fault to allege against the compositions now lying before us, except occasionally on the score to which we have been just adverting; namely, that the manner in some instances is not that which best pleases us

in religious addresses: but it ought to be recollected that they were not delivered to a country congregation, but to a refined audience in a fashionable city. We shall insert a few specimens, in order that the reader may judge for himself.

Mr. Warner not only displays a spirit of genuine Christian forbearance, but is a zealous advocate for it, and repeatedly inculcates it as an essential part of the character of a disciple of Christ. In his discourse on the Christian spirit, he observes that

'Long experience has justified the assertion, that no disputes burn with such fury, excite such malignant emotions, or impel to such fearful acts of violence and cruelty, as religious differences. Involving the dearests interests of mankind, and addressed alike to their hopes and fears, their understanding and their passions, the religious principle sinks deeply into the soul; and that peculiar modification of it, which is imbibed in early youth, twining itself round the heart, and becoming identified with the feelings and opinions of the mind, is consequently regarded with a parental fondness, that renders man quick to defend, fierce to resent, and eager to punish any opposition to, or violation of, this darling sentiment.'

Having in the same discourse very ably exposed the unreasonableness of a dogmatical and bigotted turn, he makes this animated appeal:

'Since man is reminded of his ignorance by every thing around him; since he has constant occasion to confess the weakness of his understanding, the erroneousness of his opinions, and the circumscription of his knowledge with respect to the most familiar matters, is it not irrational in him to arrogate to himself an infallibility of judgment in affairs that are removed still farther from his detection by their speculative, intricate, or mysterious nature? Is it not insolent in him to censure or despise his neighbour, because their sentiments may not accord on doubtful subjects or undefined points? And is it not criminal in him to make this difference a plea, not only for withdrawing from his brother mortal love and charity, esteem and confidence, but also for accumulating upon him contempt and obloquy, hatred and defamation? Worms that we are, creatures of a moment, when our lives are compared with eternity; inhabitants of a grain of sand, when our globe is balanced against the universe; weak sighted and narrow-minded, wretched and miserable, "and poor, and blind, and naked;" ill does it become *those* who have stretched to the furthest verge of that limited knowledge which human imbecility is permitted to reach, to pronounce dogmatically that *their* religious speculations are exclusively right; that *they* alone, of all the tribes of mankind, have discovered the forms of worship by which the great God may best be propitiated; and that such as fall not in with their reveries, or entrench not themselves within the pale of their church, are involved in one general sentence of anathema, and ought to be regarded with unqualified disgust and abhorrence!

'Irrational, however, as this conduct may be, it is still more contrary to the geniune spirit of Christianity, than obnoxious to our most accurate notions of propriety, and our best views of the fitness of things. To allow to our brother a liberty of thought in matters of religion, and to abstain sacredly from infringing upon the rights of his conscience, is a duty solemnly and repeatedly enjoined by the blessed Author of our religion, and the inspired preachers of it after him, to "every one that nameth the name of Christ."

The succeeding passage, taken from the discourse on the friendship of the world, shews that the author, though insisting on holiness of life, is no advocate for unnecessary austerity; that, if uncontaminated by the world himself, he is no stranger to its ways; and that he nicely draws the line between the lawful and the unlawful in amusements and recreations:

'Let it not be thought, however, that by any thing we have now said, it is intended to level an indiscriminate censure against amusements and recreations, under all their forms and in every degree; because such general reprobation would be alike inconsistent with reason, and unsupported by religion. Innocent pleasures and harmless diversions, in moderate proportion, are sanctioned by both. Then only do they consider amusements as sinful, when their nature and tendency are such as to awaken improper associations in the mind; or when their repetition is so frequent, as to interfere with more rational and necessary pursuits, with the useful business of life, and the essential services of religion. Man, necessarily subjected to much evil both physical and moral, requires, and is intended by his Creator, to be solaced with occasional relaxation. The bountiful and good GOD who made him, is pleased to see him cheerful and happy; to behold him applying the means of felicity which He has prepared for him, with a grateful and a joyful heart. But then it is to be recollected, that all these streams of solace and delight which thus spring from the DEITY, must be supposed to partake in some degree of the nature of their original Fountain, to be pure, refined, innocent, and virtuous; and consequently, that no enjoyments are sanctioned by GOD's approbation, which do not bear upon them the impression of these amiable characteristics. Hence it follows, as an undeniable conclusion, that all those pleasures and diversions, which, though not essentially vicious in themselves, yet operate either immediately or indirectly as incentives to vice; which gradually wean the mind from useful, honourable, and serious pursuits; which, by little and little, extinguish its fire, deaden its energies, and destroy its elasticity; which excite a distaste for the pursuits of virtue and the offices of piety, a disgust at the composed pleasures of domestic life and an horror at the necessary duty of solitary meditation and secret self-examination; that all these pleasures, diversions, and amusements, are neither pure nor refined, neither innocent nor virtuous; that they are unhallowed, pernicious and dangerous to the soul, and that no intimacy can be formed with them without incurring the enmity of GOD. Sorry am I, the authoritative voice of truth compels me to confess, that if we may judge of the nature and tendency of modern amusements from the

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tinge which they give to the public character, we are bound to declare they for the most part deserve to be comprehended under one sweeping sentence of condemnation: since, to their destructive influence must be attributed, in a great degree, that disgraceful frivolity and effeminacy of manners; that total want of steadiness and consideration; that general laxity or dissolution of firm, manly, and upright principles; which all perceive, which most condemn, but from whose contamination few, alas, escape. Hence it is, that home is considered as little better than a melancholy prison; unless it be filled with crouds whom its wretched, thoughtless inmates can neither love, esteem, or respect. Hence it is, that the dear delights of family intercourse, the gentle charities of private life, the sweet emanations of conjugal attachment, are ridiculed, despised, forgotten. Hence it is, that the votaries of pleasure perpetually rush together into public crowds, to renew a stimulus, without whose action they would be wretched, and under whose operation they still find themselves dissatisfied and forlorn; experiencing the feeling of desolation in the heart of multitudes, and suffering the pains of dissappointment in the very lap of expected enjoyment. Hence it is, that in the one sex the most licentious principles and profligate habits have been generated, matured, and, stamped with the sanction of fashion, adopted into almost genetal circulation: and in the other sex, the refined delicacy, the retiring diffidence, the feminine softness, and the attractive sensibility, which address at the same time the heart and the understanding, the feelings and the judgment; are in too many instances exchanged for boldness, confidence, and masculine affectation. The mistaken female, dropping all the peculiar graces of her sex, imitates, in levity of manners and impropriety of attire, the pitiable daughters of public pollution, who, "forsaking the guide of their youth, and forgetting the covenant of their God," have fallen from their attractiveness as well as their virtue and religion; and are at once rejected of society, and condemned of Heaven.'

It will be perceived by our readers that Mr. Warner is rather a rhetorical than a logical preacher: but the style of his sermons is polished, the composition elaborate, and the matter interesting; and they are well calculated to render men amiable in private life, valuable members of the community, and pious and enlightened Christians. Jo.

Art. IX. *Essays, Literary, Political, and Oeconomical.* By John Gardiner, M.D., Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, and of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Edinburgh, Constable; London, Longman and Co.

The term *Essay*, however unassuming it may be in itself, has acquired in literature a more important meaning: it does not announce the crude attempts of the youthful, nor the lame efforts of inexperience; it often designates, on the contrary,

contrary, the mature labours of first rate minds. We have seen it the denomination given to productions which have immortalized our most eminent geniuses; and which severally display the deep penetration and vigorous thinking of a Bacon,—the unrivalled subtilty and analytical powers of a Hume,—the lively wit, exquisite humour, fine sense, and elegant learning of an Addison,—and the energetic diction and luminous matter of a Johnson. Courageous must be the man, therefore, who, by prefixing this title to his lucubrations, designedly provokes a comparison with heroes of this high order in the republic of letters!

If, however, the author before us could be charged with this presumption, of which perhaps he is totally guiltless, it might be said in extenuation that there are not wanting numbers who keep him in countenance. Be this as it may, it is not in our power to associate him with our approved essay-writers; since we are unable to discover in his pages that originality and precision of thought, that vivacity and neatness of style, and those choice stores of knowlege, which distinguish the eminent authors of this class. He appears to be a thinking well informed man, of a sound judgment, zealous for religion and morality, and animated by the spirit of our free constitution: but we are sorry to add that his compositions are diffuse, that his facts are hacknied, and that his observations are often trite. The moral part of these discussions is very much in the manner of plain useful sermons; partaking in no small degree of that dulness, of which the fastidious are too apt to complain in those grave performances. Unelevated as is the rank, then, which we feel ourselves obliged to assign to the labours of this author, we yet do not deny that a very large portion of our fellow-creatures may derive benefit from them.

Dr. G.'s first essay consists of conjectures on the origin of language: which he regards not as matter of divine communication, but as the pure invention of man. He denies the reality of one universal language, and contends for the existence of several original distinct dialects. He solves the difficulty of their invention by a reference to the force of the principle of imitation in children, to the adaptation for speech of the organs of the human being, and to the necessities of his situation, as well as to the length of time in which language was forming. He rests much on the imitative principle in infants: but, in our opinion, though this enables us to comprehend the early and speedy acquisition of a language already in existence, it assists us very little in accounting for its first formation.

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We insert an extract or two as specimens of the author's manner of treating this subject:

'From the histories given us of solitary families, or tribes, uniting in larger societies, and the junction, afterwards, of these into nations or kingdoms, we must infer, man, through a long succession of ages, to have improved almost insensibly from a state of nature to the most civilized condition of which he is capable. In like manner, we must suppose language to have improved with the same slow pace, always advancing with the civilization of the people, from a barbarous jargon to a polished style; but in every period of their history, sufficient for their state of improvement. Such, however, is the nature of language, that there will be in every original tongue nearly the same parts of speech, and formation of a natural grammar. In this, men are directed by a divine principle of reason, common to all, which may be denominated the common sense of mankind, capable, by the exercise of their external and internal senses, of conceiving objects, qualities, relations, and an accurate distinction of time, &c. which they express by certain arbitary vocal sounds, called by grammarians *nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs,* &c.'—

'If the constitution of any language is examined with attention, by a person of thought and reflection, it will be found to be a work of art, in the formation of which, great ingenuity, as well as judgment, must have been employed. For the nice grammatical formation of a complete and regular language, from eight parts of speech, as in the Greek and Latin, and most of our modern tongues, must always impress us with an idea of its being the greatest, as well as the most useful art, to which human knowledge can arrive: the attainment of it, however, must always appear to be a work of almost insuperable difficulty. But whoever seriously contemplates the very gradual progress of language for many centuries, before it acquires its utmost degree of perfection, will cease to wonder at the difficulty with which he at first supposed language to be so artfully framed. Like the division of labour in a complex manufacture, which no one man could execute, it is by degrees brought to perfection, by the united industry of many hands. But in the invention, gradual formation, and improvement of a language, how great must have been the division of labour; how many ages must have passed from the first creation of man; and how many millions must have succeeded one another, and in every generation of them, several men of capacity and genius contributing each their mite towards the perfecting of their vernacular tongue! In taking this just view of the slow progress of language, our idea of the great difficulty of its formation vanishes; for the little that any individual might contribute towards the improvement of his vernacular tongue, would rather be a pleasure than a labour, as it would mark him for a man of discernment. This is somewhat more than conjecture; for it is scarcely possible to conceive by what other means language could arrive at that degree of correctness and regularity in which it exists in several parts of the world where the art of writing is still unknown.'

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Of this general and desultory method, we apprehend, our readers will not desire any farther examples. We cannot conceal our opinion that the author has neglected to avail himself of those sources of information, with respect to the mechanism of speech and the elements of language, which are preliminaries to the arduous inquiry which he has undertaken.

In his second Essay, Dr. G. combats the doctrine of the common origin of mankind, and contends for the formation of distinct races of men by the Creator. He infers this idea from the delight in variety which nature indicates, from the necessity of adaptation to climate, from the inadequacy of the common notions to account for the peopling of the earth, from the impossibility of emigration to given situations in which human Beings have been found, and from the physical and intellectual differences visible in different tribes of men. His view of the origin of language naturally leads to the hypothesis here maintained: but he too lightly passes over the difficulty of reconciling it to the Mosaic account. He must know that presumptions and suppositions will weigh little against the doctrine of the descent of the human race from a common stock, and that of the peopling of the earth by the descendants of Noah, which are supported by the whole tenor of the sacred cosmogony.

The third Essay treats on the formation of the minds of children previously to a literary education; and many hints are here offered, which merit the attention of those who are intrusted with the care of young children.

Essay IV. enumerates the causes which promote or retard population. The complete and masterly performance of Mr. Malthus on this topic has reduced to small value the works of his competitors on the same subject; and nothing can more strongly evince the service rendered to letters by that Gentleman, than the want of precision discoverable in every writer who attempts inquiries of this nature, and is a stranger to his book. The vast spring of population was a fact which could not be otherwise than well known, and had often indeed been mentioned: but it is strange to reflect how little its effects had been considered. To ascertain its laws, and to follow them into their consequences, was the field on which Mr. Malthus entered; in which he acquitted himself so ably and successfully; and from which he has derived so much well-earned fame and merited consideration *.

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* Mr. M. has lately been appointed Professor of *Political Economy*, in the New Institution of the East India Company at Hertford.

Dr. G.

Dr. G. combats the practice of entails, on the ground of its inconsistency with the interests of a commercial country. Regarding our commerce exclusively, we could not well resist the conclusions drawn in these pages; and Dr. Smith has most clearly shewn that, applying the same criterion, our navigation laws would be obliged to give way. The present author is an admirer of these statutes, and he can only be so on political grounds:—on the same ground, then, we would ask him whether entails must not be tolerated? Without them, we cannot continue that stable aristocracy which forms an essential branch of our constitution; a power in the state which is a fair object, no doubt, of popular jealousy and vigilance, but which is necessary to that balance of the authorities, whence perhaps the perfection and security of our liberty principally arise.

The most laudable motives induce this writer to plead in favour of a commutation of tythes. He appears to be a firm friend to our establishments, civil and ecclesiastical; and to regard the clergy with becoming respect. To a substitute for tythes that shall provide for the due estimation of the ministers of religion, we should be most cordial friends; for we are sensible to all the benefits that would accrue from it: but we cannot dissemble the difficulties that belong to this delicate subject. We wish not to infuse despair into the philanthropic breast that is meditating on such plans, but only to inspire it with due caution.

In his fifth Essay, the author considers the topic of government much at large. He passes in review the abuses which have descended from feudal times, and warmly exhorts the antient states of Europe to remove them. He loses no opportunity of bestowing warm and appropriate praise on our own admirable and envied constitution; the history and ameliorating progress of which he traces, contrasting it as he proceeds with modern monarchies and antient republics. The conquests of the French in the late war, he thinks, were owing as much to the existence of feudal oppressions in the countries subdued, as to the demagogic acts of the invaders, and to their prowess in arms. On this subject, he remarks:

'There were dispersed among the inhabitants of every country invaded by the French, manifestoes, declarations, and other papers; in which, after pointing out, in the most artful manner, that they were slaves, they solemnly protested, that they came, not to conquer, but to give them freedom and protection. Great pains were taken to disseminate these insidious publications among the troops with whom they were at war, in which were such flattering expressions of amity and brotherly love, that many of the poor soldiers were de-

ceived, and fought with reluctance in the day of battle. Large quantities of these papers were conveyed into the enemy's lines some days before an engagement was expected, and with an effect that was experienced with sadness and sorrow by the Austrian generals. The French have constantly and uniformly adhered to the same treacherous conduct, not only during their hostilities, but after the conclusion of the most solemn treaties of amity and peace. In proof of this assertion, we need only look to the humiliating state of the United Provinces, ruined and undone, in comparison of what they once were; and likewise to the Austrian Netherlands, sunk under the late French requisitions and martial law. What a downfall has the Republic of Venice sustained, after being robbed of her ships, of whatever was contained in her arsenals, of every thing that was valuable belonging to the state, or even to rich individuals, and after all, bartered to the Emperor in exchange for other valuable possessions!'

The good sense and laudable spirit of the writer appear in the succeeding passage:

'Experience shows, that the most perfect code of laws cannot be adopted by all nations with equal advantage. It must vary according to the genius of the people, the degree of civilization to which they have arrived, the prejudices in favour of certain ancient laws and customs, manner of life, climate, religion, trade, and other circumstances. Freedom, however, ought not to be given perhaps all at once, and to its full extent, to people accustomed to slavery; for, notwithstanding some individuals may be made free with advantage, yet it has been found, that the sudden emancipation of a nation of slaves is dangerous. But, in civilized countries, there can be no hazard in advancing the subject to freedom, as far as is consistent with the nature of their present government and police. The repealing old statutes, that bear hard on the subject, and the making new laws, after due deliberation, for the increase of freedom, without materially injuring the old constitution of the country, is perhaps the true secret of rendering subjects happy, by making them free by degrees. But the love of power, so congenial to man, keeps monarchs from viewing their true interest; they see not, that from freedom proceeds the prosperity of a country, as it inspires genius, and excites to industry; which begets wealth, power, and all the happy consequences that distinguish a free people from the slaves of despotic Princes. Through the whole of this treatise, I have endeavoured to reprobate the despotism of Princes, as inconsistent with the happiness of the subject and prosperity of the country.'

Dr. Gardiner appears at a loss to account for the success experienced by French treachery in Swisserland, which he considers as a free soil: but he does not seem to be aware that, in several of the Aristocratic cantons, an odious monopoly of power existed; and that not much short of the half of the territory of that country consisted of vassal districts, in which the most galling oppressions and the most vexatious distinc-

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tions were perpetuated, with more strictness, perhaps, than in the dominions of any feudal Lord or Prince.

Similar liberal views accompany the author in his concluding Essay; in which he observes on the causes that promote or retard the advancement of literature, commerce, and the arts. He shews a laudable anxiety to persuade his readers that an inseparable connection exists between these pursuits and a free system of government: the former, he contends, can only strike root in a free soil; for though they may seem to flourish for a time under the shadow of a beneficent despotism, the favourable appearance is of short duration, and they are sure at no great distance of time to fade and die away. He illustrates his doctrine by a reference to the case of Scotland; remarking

'That the effects of the Restoration upon the political state of England and of Scotland were widely different. In England, after that event, many of the laws, in favour of the rights of the subject, which had been passed by the Long Parliament, were adopted and ratified by the Legislature. In Scotland, by a rescissory act, all statutes passed after 1633 were abrogated; and by various positive acts, the prerogatives of the Crown were extended to a degree that never had been exercised, or claimed, by any of his Majesty's ancestors. This alteration in the constitution of Scotland, had gradually taken place from about the end of the 16th century, but more particularly from the accession of James VI. to the Crown of England, in 1603. Before this period, the government of Scotland was more aristocratical than monarchical, as may be clearly discerned from the prerogatives exercised by the States of Scotland, upon the authority of both statutes and precedents: 1st, A power to resist the Sovereign, if he invaded the constitution; and, 2d, The King anciently had no negative voice in Parliament: while the States often restrained him in matters of government. 3d, The Scots Parliament often appointed the times of their meetings, adjournments, and committees to superintend the administration during the intervals of their meetings. 4th, The King could not make peace nor war without their consent; the people were armed by their authority; commanders, and even the guards who attended the person of the King, were sometimes appointed by them: They not only raised money, but, in some instances, appropriated it: They ordered the coining, and regulated the standard of money. 5th, The Lords of Parliament settled all the fees of officers of justice, of the courts of judicature, and of the officers of the King's house. Faulty Judges were not to be restored without the consent of Parliament. It must, however, be acknowledged, that these powers were not regularly exercised by the States, nor were they always admitted by the Kings of Scotland; but there are examples, and even statutes to this purpose, in the early part of the Scots history. It appears, however, that the King sometimes complained that these were usurpations by the aristocracy; at other times they were sanctioned by his approbation.

'From

'From this short representation of the ancient constitution of Scotland, will appear the great change made in the government of that country, by their Kings, after they succeeded to the Crown of England. This apparent submission of the nobility, and great landholders, to the encroachments of the Crown on their privileges, was chiefly brought about from the expectation of power and interest being conferred on them, and by the consummate address of artful ministers. Scotland did not, therefore, at the Revolution, receive the same benefit from the laws, that was enjoyed by the English; for their laws and constitutions were different. In that country, a despotic power was kept up under the administration of Lauderdale, Middleton, and other ministers, employed by Charles and his brother James. Even in succeeding reigns, when the government inclined to a milder and more equitable administration in Scotland; the minds of the people in general, in that country, continued still to have a great deal of that cast observable under an arbitrary power. This was owing to an aristocracy, which had always subsisted in the domains of the nobles, great landholders, and chieftains in the Highlands, with feudal and juridical privileges, which they often exercised with a tyrannical sway, to the great oppression of the subject, and debasement of the human character.'—

'It was in the royal boroughs, and in the sea-port towns alone, that arts and commerce were feebly carried on, by men of slender abilities, with small capitals, till about the year 1740, when some sensible men of property lent their credit, and employed their influence in extending the arts and manufactures of their country. But these patriotic endeavours were not, for some years, followed by that success that might have been expected from such vigorous exertions; for the people, in many parts of the country, were not yet free; nor were they fully emancipated, till that most beneficial act, passed in Parliament in 1748, abolishing the hereditary jurisdictions of the vassals of the Crown. Soon after this, a spirit of industry and enterprize, seized several men of wealth and abilities, in promoting the several manufactures carried on in this country; and, ever since, trade and commerce have been continually on the increase.

'Since the year 1748, Scotland has produced more good authors in history, philosophy, and other branches of literature, and there has been a more general spirit for philosophical inquiry, than ever existed, in the same space of time, in any former age. From which it is easy to perceive how much that freedom of thought, and hilarity of mind, which always attend liberty and security, contribute towards the promotion of arts, commerce, and literature.'

The subject of the connection of practical liberty with political prosperity, and a flourishing state of letters and arts, is one of the finest which can employ the human faculties: it accordingly calls forth the enthusiasm of the present author; and the most glowing passages, that occur in these volumes, are to be found in his concluding Essay. Jo.

ART.

ART. X. *Reflections on the Commerce of the Mediterranean.* Deduced from actual Experience during a Residence on both Shores of the Mediterranean Sea. Containing a particular Account of the Traffic of the Kingdoms of Algiers, Tunis, Sardinia, Naples, and Sicily, the Morea, &c. &c. With an impartial Examination into the Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants, in their Commercial Dealings. And a particular Description of the British Manufactures properly adapted for each Country. Shewing also the Policy of increasing the Number of British Consuls; and that such Advantages may result to the English by holding Possessions in the Mediterranean, as nearly to equal their West India Trade. By John Jackson, Esq., F.S.A., Author of the Journey over Land from India. 8vo. pp. 200. 6s. Boards. Clarke. 1804.

THE reader may here obtain the satisfaction of perusing a work written apparently by a master of his subject; and which well merits attention from the statesman, the merchant, and the man of letters. Mr. Jackson does not expressly state in what pursuits, and under what circumstances, he acquired the information which he now imparts: but, speaking of himself somewhat peculiarly in the plural number, he thus assures us that his remarks are the fruit of personal observation, and thus modestly characterizes his labours:

'In the following pages we have not had recourse to the flowers of description, or availed ourselves of a traveller's privilege, in magnifying his adventures; on the contrary, we have confined ourselves to a simple narrative of facts, drawn from experience, during a residence on both shores of the Mediterranean, which we have told in so unvarnished, so simple, and so plain a manner, as we trust will be intelligible to every reader. The following sheets contain no more than a digested journal or diary of actual observations, on the trade, laws, manners, and customs of the people we have had occasion to visit.'

To the statesman, this little volume opens a field for commercial industry, which, though well known and partially cultivated, admits of immense farther improvement. It is scarcely credible that this country, which on account of its commerce provokes so much hatred, prosecutes in an extremely imperfect manner a trade which is so near home as that of the Mediterranean; that she has no direct traffic with the Barbary states, nor with Sardinia; that, on all the coasts of that sea, we have scarcely one British consul; and that we entrust our interests to natives, who most grossly impose on us. The author is of opinion that we might establish, in this quarter, a traffic which would employ nearly 2000 sail of merchant shipping of all descriptions; and which would fall little short of that which we maintain with the West Indies.

Mr. Jackson imputes a high value to settlements in the Mediterranean islands; and Minorca, he thinks, ought not to have been ceded at the peace. He enumerates the commercial benefits which we might have derived from that island, and from Malta; and according to him a tonnage duty on the coasting trade, which by means of those stations we might easily carry on, would nearly defray the expence of the garrisons which they would require.

The merchant, also, will collect from these pages whither he can direct his adventure with the greatest advantage, the most proper place and the best season for taking in a lading, the weight or measure by which he is to sell or buy, the tariff according to which he is to pay, and the best method of stowing the commodity on board. He is likewise warned against the chicane which it will be attempted to practise on him.

Those of our countrymen, moreover, who seek general knowlege, will here meet with striking traits of national character; with facts illustrative of governments, manners, and usages very dissimilar to our own; and also with hints which will suggest inquiries with respect to natural productions very different from those that belong to our native soil.

The British Merchant is advised to be on his guard in his dealings with the Jews in these parts; and we learn from the author that

'There is more chicanery and imposition practised on the coasts of the Mediterranean, than in all the rest of the world.

'The Jews are very numerous in all the Barbary states; they are not tolerated in Spain, but were in considerable numbers in Marseilles, and the South of France till very lately; they were formerly excluded from Piedmont, but they are very numerous in the other Italian States, down to the Roman; they are not tolerated in Naples, Sicily, or Malta; there are a great many in the Austrian sea-ports, in the Adriatic. In the Seven Islands, Morea, and Turkey in Europe, they are not very numerous; and there are very few in Turkey in Asia, Syria, or Egypt. Whatever agreement is made with a Jew in any of the Barbary states, whether for purchase, sale or barter of merchandize, provided the particulars of the transaction are not registered by a *cancilier* in one of the European consulary offices, and samples deposited, and the parties bound in a penalty to perform the contract, the Jew will not abide by his agreement, however solemnly he may have pledged himself, if he has the least prospect of gaining by his breach of contract; and whenever he is reminded of his breach of faith, and non-performance of contract, he will shrug up his shoulders, and say *domane*, signifying he will perform it on the morrow; and he will repeat this as often as he is applied to. In most other places they are bound to perform, though the agreement is only verbal, provided it is in the presence of a broker.

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'The Jews have no flag, but are usually protected where they locally reside, and in some places enjoy nearly the same privileges as the natural born subjects. They never consider their word or faith pledged in the least binding, and many an Englishman has often cause to reflect upon his credulity; but when a person is well acquainted with their principles and their prevailing passions, some good business may be done with the Jews, as well as other people, particularly in making purchases, as the Jews will in general sell, provided they can make a profit, however small; but the merchant must be a competent judge of the article he is purchasing, otherwise he will most assuredly be imposed upon; the Jews will soon discover whether he is competent or not, and when they find him deficient, they will descend to all the low mean chicanery that can possibly be practised or invented, even to bribe the merchants' servants.

'It will be necessary to observe the same caution with respect to the Greeks, who compose a considerable part of the population of the northern shores of the Mediterranean. They are chiefly subjects of the Grand Signior, and are at present in a very deplorable state; they have a flag for their merchantmen, but that is not considered as an independent flag by other nations, and whatever insult may be committed against them at sea, they cannot easily obtain redress; the Greeks have no other power, except the Porte, to apply to for redress, and their complaints have very seldom been attended to. The Greeks being a numerous people, the Porte has always been jealous of them, and instead of redressing their grievances, which would soon make them appear respectable in the eyes of other nations, has taken every opportunity of reducing them by degrees to the most abject slavery. The Greeks finding every representation for a redress of their grievances treated with indifference, they now (it may be termed) take the law into their own hands; whenever a Greeek ship at sea receives any insult from an armed vessel of any other nation, being too strong, the Greeks patiently submit to the insult; but whenever they meet with another vessel of that nation at sea, and can overpower it, the Greeks will most assuredly destroy every soul on board, plunder the vessel of every thing valuable, and then sink it; therefore it is considered dangerous meeting with a Greek ship of superior force at sea.

'There are also a great many Greek pirates, who are sure to find protection in those ports where there are no Turkish garrisons. The Greeks are a people who are by no means to be depended upon; they are always practising every low mean artifice that can possibly be invented; having no name or characters at stake, they are more barefaced and less cautious in their impositions than the Jews.'

To mercantile adventurers, the following information may be important:

'The *Armenians* are another nation or race of men who are not to be relied on with implicit confidence. They have no king or head of their nation, neither are they formed into a republic; they are deprived of all political authority; though they are much better than either the Jews or Greeks, yet whatever virtues are found amongst

them, are more from necessity than principle. In Armenia, and in those countries where they are in considerable numbers, no man can travel from one province to another without a proper passport; therefore, whatever fraud or crime an Armenian commits, he is easily detected. The Armenians enjoy the greatest part of the commerce of Turkey in Asia, Arabia, Persia, and the major part of the Caravan trade. The Caravan ships between Bengal and Bussora are usually freighted by the Armenian merchants to and from India. They are protected in their commerce by the Turks, who are of themselves in general but very indifferent merchants; and they usually employ the Armenian merchants to conduct their commercial affairs. They have a great many of the Oriental manners and customs, and have a few good traits in their character. The Turks treat them with more respect than they shew towards the Greeks. The Armenians are more submissive, harmless, and inoffensive, and do not possess so much of that vindicitive spirit, so universal amongst the Greeks. There were very few Armenians in Italy or the Morea, and none in Barbary; but in Turkey in Asia they form the major part of the population.'

We have met with merchants belonging to this people, whose society was very interesting, on account of their being equally conversant with the dealings of civilized Europe and those of ruder Asia; and whose traffic depended not less on the Caravans of the East, than on the consignments of the West. It is a remark not less curious in itself than deserving the attention of the same class of persons, that 'whatever the nature of the government may be, whether *hereditary* or *elective*, a monarchy, aristocracy, or democracy, provided the government causes its flag to be respected by other nations, whether from love or fear, it will have the same effect: the individuals of that nation will cause themselves to be respected in foreign countries, and carefully avoid doing any mean action that might in the least degrade their high national character.'

In the opinion of Mr. Jackson, Malta, even in a commercial view, is a place of the utmost importance: but for his statements on this head, and the course which he traces for the trade in the Mediterranean, we must refer to his interesting tract.

The author's observations on the subject of consuls appear to us very well to deserve the consideration of the public and government:

'The late conduct of the French, in sending an immense number of consuls and commercial agents to all the ports and cities of any consequence in the Morea, Levant, Egypt, &c. ought to have been sufficient to have opened the eyes of the English. Perhaps some of them were sent in a double capacity, both for political, as well as commercial purposes. However that may be, they were treated by the French government in the most handsome manner, which would always operate

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in their favour, and make them appear, in the eyes of the people where they were established, as men of real consequence. They had men of war to attend, and every respect outwardly shewn them, equal to so many ambassadors. The French would not have been at so much expence, had they not seen their interest in it, and the necessity of sending out so many agents to recover that commerce they had lost for a considerable time.'—

'The duties of customs alone, upon a very few cargoes of merchandise, will more than pay the salaries of all the consuls we have in the Mediterranean: and had England three times the number there, it would always be of increased advantage to this country. It is also a very unfortunate circumstance, that amongst the consuls and vice-consuls, a great many of them are not British born subjects; and from these gentlemen, we cannot expect that they will attend so much to the interest of this country, as the natural born subjects. We have no consul in Sardinia, though an extensive and fertile island; and there has not been an accredited British consul there, for a great number of years: should the government ever be pleased to appoint a respectable consul in that island, with a salary of about five hundred pounds per annum, they would soon see the great good the country would derive from it. The consul, for his own benefit, would soon import and export as many cargoes of merchandise yearly, as would pay in duties ten times the amount of his salary. This is equally applicable to many other parts of the Mediterranean.

'His Majesty's ships, as well as the merchants, labour under many difficulties, from want of a greater number of proper accredited British consuls; and the losses that are sustained, finally fall upon the country. The vice-consuls are usually Greeks or Italians, and therefore will always practise their impositions upon all strangers that employ them. When a man-of-war goes into any port for supplies, and there is no British consul, the vice-consul will not even assist them with the necessary supplies, unless he has a prospect of gaining thirty-five per cent. exclusive of the usual commission, which only serves as a cloak for their more exorbitant charges. We have known an instance, where one of his Majesty's ships was supplied by an Italian vice-consul, who charged the man-of-war in the proportion above-mentioned; we discovered this imposition, by going into the market and purchasing provision for some English merchantmen. Some of the vice-consuls act in that barefaced manner, as if they really thought themselves entitled to make these extraordinary charges in time of war; these impositions alone will amount to many thousand pounds; most certainly more than would pay all the consuls' salaries in the Mediterranean: but the impositions practiced upon his Majesty's ships is but very trifling, when compared with what the merchants lose in a similar manner.'

The uniform enormous impositions, practised by the native agents on their British employers, are thus explained by Mr. Jackson:

'We have taken a great deal of pains and trouble to find out the cause why this extraordinary imposition should be thirty-five per

cent. as near as possible: at length we discovered the reason from our Italian servants; when we sent any of them to market to buy provisions, either for house or ship's use, we always found that they overcharged in the proportion we have mentioned. An Italian servant will not require any wages, provided he has the privilege of going to market; he will also get a considerable sum from all the tradesmen employed. This practice appears very extraordinary in the eyes of an Englishman; but we found that the Italians, Spaniards, and others, do it from religious principles, and the priests come in for a considerable share. When we have reasoned with these people concerning this practice, and stated the iniquity of imposing upon those whom they ought to serve faithfully, they have never acknowledged it to be just, but have frequently declared, that they were compelled to do it by the priests, who take this method of making the Heretics contribute towards their support. This is a common practice in Spain, in all the Italian states, Sicily, Malta, &c. &c. and every other part on both shores of the Mediterranean, where either Italian, Spaniards, Ragusees, or Greeks are employed; and by every other people who have faith in a clerical absolution.'

Mr. Jackson's account of the effect of olive oil on the human body, which is said to be given from his own personal observation, is worthy of notice. He states that, in Tunis, where the plague frequently rages in the most frightful manner, the labourers employed in the oil stores, who are smeared all over with oil, and who eat chiefly bread and oil, are never attacked with that disease: that they are never stung by musquitoes, scorpions, or other venomous animals; and that, when any other persons are stung or bitten, they scarify the part with a knife, and quickly rub in olive oil, which arrests the progress of the poison.

We cannot follow the author in the very minute detail into which he enters, respecting the various exports and imports of which the traffic here warmly recommended ought to consist: but the interested reader must have recourse to this performance itself. Bonaparte, it is well known, pursues as one of the first objects of his ambition a pre-eminence over all the countries which command this inland main; in which if he succeeds, we fear that the important suggestions and proposals of the present author can be regarded only as ingenious hypothetical plans, no longer practicable. As a matter of liberal curiosity merely, we should be glad to see a work on the same subject, by this well informed author, executed on a larger scale than the present. This performance, in the form which it now bears, is marked by perspicuity and commendable simplicity; and it exhibits (we think) internal decisive proofs of accuracy and correctness, demonstrating the writer to be a man of much observation, and of an enterprizing spirit.

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ART. XI. *Londinium Redivivum:* or an ancient History and modern Description of London; compiled from Parochial records, Archives of various Foundations, the Harleian MSS. and other authentic Sources, by James Peller Malcolm; Vols. I. II. and III. 4to. 5l. 4s. od. Boards. Rivingtons, &c.

NOTWITHSTANDING the abundant historical and antiquarian information which writers have accumulated respecting our metropolis, it cannot be doubted that much may yet be obtained that will be acceptable. In such a pursuit, however, the danger is incurred of repeating the often-told tale, or of recording particulars which are either tiresomely dull or frivolously minute. Mr. Malcolm appears to have qualifications requisite for the work, since he is active, studious, and intelligent: 'I sought (says he) for a path, which would lead me to unknown facts; whether it is found, and if found, whether it is pursued to any purpose, my readers must decide.' Our abstract may perhaps assist in forming this estimate.

The first volume commences with an article on the 'Increase of London;' and we shall quote some of the opening remarks:

'It would be a labour of little less difficulty, to attempt to describe the varying form of a summer cloud, than to trace from year to year the outline of London. Ever on the increase, these pages will scarcely have been perused, ere matter might be found to swell them. When this enormous mass will be completed, is beyond our powers of calculation. The fallacy of conjecture on such subjects may be proved from Sir William Petty's "Political Arithmetic, 1683," when he endeavours to demonstrate that the growth of London must stop of itself before the year 1800, at which time, he adds, the population must be 5,359,000 persons. Although the city hath been wonderfully enlarged since Sir William's time, his plan must be extended some centuries farther, before his latter prediction can be verified, supposing the increase to be in the past proportion.'

The parishes in London (proper) here brought under review are those of St. Alphage, All-Hallows in Thames-Street, All-Hallows in Lombard Street, St. Andrew Undershaft, St. Mary at Axe, annexed to the foregoing, St. Bartholomew the Great and the Less, St. Benedict, Grace-Church, St. Leonard, East-Cheap, St. Botolph, Bishopgate, and St. Bridget in the ward of Faringdon without. Several curious and entertaining anecdotes occur in their history: Sion College, and the East-India House, come under particular notice: but the Abbey, now the Collegiate church of St. Peter, Westminster, employs a great number of pages, extending from p. 87 to p. 265. Mr. Malcolm here finds a great variety of subjects to engage his own attention and attract that of his readers. He has examined every chapel, some of which are perhaps not generally known, and he is not a mere cursory observer. He passes from column to

column, from one tomb, monument, inscription, &c. to another, and furnishes his remarks; yet an attendant might be disposed to farther inquiries; and it is not easy always to follow him, without being well acquainted with the spot.—Some dispute has arisen concerning the chapels of Islip, abbot in the reign of Henry VII, and St. Erasmus*: but Mr. Malcolm allows one to each; and whereas more antient owners interfere, he pronounces, especially as to the former, 'It *is* Islip's, for he keeps quiet possession, surrounded by what has ludicrously been termed the ragged regiment, in other words, the battered and decayed effigies of our antient monarchs, which it was then the custom to dress in regal ornaments, and carry to the church at their funerals.'—This antiquary rather combats those well known remarks of Mr. Addison, which were published in his Spectator†, and had their effect on the public mind; they have been and still are quoted in visiting the tomb of Sir Cloudesly Shovell. He agrees with that excellent man and respected critic in condemning the design, but differs in the application of his censures; and he particularly observes concerning the "long perriwig," 'absurd as those flowing wigs were, it is the only part of his attire that brings the date of his death within a thousand years of its time. The whole of the tomb is wretchedly executed; but I think the design would have been very good, if the effigies had been omitted —I would have shewn him in his admiral's uniform; meeting the element into which he sunk with fortitude, and as much resignation as the fear of death would permit the *stoutest* of us to feel.'—In conformity with this idea, in his account of Lord Chatham's statue, we find him declaring—'This figure is full of the grace and dignity of the greatest orator. He is in the *dress of our times*, and this contributes to bring the real character before us.'

The chapel of Henry VIIth naturally obtains much of the notice of this writer: but it is also calculated to excite surprize at the ignorant yet distressing anxiety, discovered by that king; at the enormous expence, and the extraordinary parade by which he was supposed to provide for the safety of his soul, when it left it's earthly habitation. Though Mr. Malcolm is inclined to reverent attention on these occasions, he cannot avoid some lively remarks; particularly, after having recounted numerous specific instructions and appointments, he adds, 'Lest his soul might not rest in peace, although every precaution was taken by him that poor sinner could take, he

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* Who this Saint Erasmus was may with some persons be a difficult question.

† Vol. i. No. xxvi.

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requested that 10,000 masses should be said in the monastery, London, and its neighbourhood, for its repose;'—together with thousands of masses in honour of the five wounds of Christ, the five joys of our lady, the nine orders of angels, the patriarchs, the apostles, and all saints, 'all those to be sung in a little month after his decease.' In another place, Mr. Malcolm observes concerning this king; 'he left his funeral to the discretion of his executors, only charging them to avoid "dampnable pompe and outrageous superfluities." Whether he pursued his own advice will appear from the decorations on the chapel, altars, and his tomb, exclusive of the anniversaries.—And yet, *I* am delighted with many of the remaining specimens of his "outrageous superfluities."—This is very well said: a liberal and virtuous mind may survey with respectful pleasure the relics of antient ingenuity and mistaken piety, while it rejects or pities the folly and superstition which produced them.

In a list of burials, Oliver Cromwell stands distinguished. One or two of the author's remarks, attending the description, may be considered as rather too trifling, or too vulgar, for a man of erudition and liberality.—We are pleased however to see a candid acknowlegement, that 'the building of the abbey is involved in mists too dense for the sun of antiquarian search to dissipate.' Sulgardus, a monk, is mentioned, but his account of its origin is justly rejected as an idle tale, and it is observed; 'He has, indeed, according to custom, used but little ceremony with St. Peter, or the choir of heaven: for he hath pressed both into his serviee, in order to make the consecration of this church hallowed and sublime.'—The foundation of this structure is here fixed between the years 730 and 740: but, if we inquire who was the founder, even *Widmore* is unable to inform us. Henry IIId. appears to have been a renovator and a great benefactor to the building, especially when, 'in the year 1269, he set his shoulders, together with the king of the Romans, and other great persons, to the coffin of St. Edward, in order to place it where it now rests.' On this idle ceremony, though doubtless very magnificent and costly, Mr. Malcolm writes with brevity, but with energy and spirit; and he properly adds; 'In tracing such proceedings, I throw aside the absurdity of the motives, and the superstitous causes, as beneath a thought. I view them only as scenes beautiful in effect.'—For the revenue of the abbey, we are merely referred to Dr. Busby's parchment book, preserved in the museum, in which the accompts for one year are contained.

We have allowed ourselves so long to perambulate this antient edifice, that little room is left for remarks on the remainder of the first volume. We see not much reason for inserting,

in the account of St. Bartholomew the great, an old superstitious MS. found in the British Museum, concerning one Rahere; whether he was king's minstrel, or jester, or any thing else, and also said to be founder of this church.—'The beautiful steeple of St. Bride's, in my opinion, (says Mr. Malcolm,) surpasses every other in London. Unfortunately, its situation precludes a fair sight of it from every place but that where it is seen to the greatest disadvantage, immediately under it. The exquisite proportion preserved in each story in the ascent, 'till it terminates in an obelisk, is a work that points out an excellent master, which Wren certainly was.' 'The church is plain without, the artist having bestowed a rich design within.' —The Fleet prison furnishes some curious remarks: it appears to have been a place of confinement of great antiquity; 'it having been mentioned in the reign of Richard the first, which was from 1189 to 1199. The name then was *Prisona de la Fleet*, which last word is known to mean a small stream of water which flowed in that direction.'

This volume is closed by a history of the *Chartreuse*, now the *Charter-House*, and many pages are employed on this not uninteresting subject. Several amusing accounts and descriptions are presented to us, with remarks that are generally judicious or amusing; so that on the whole this part of the volume will prove acceptable to the reader. No one will be surprized that the author's attention is considerably engaged by the transactions of that extraordinary man, Thomas Sutton Esq. founder of this institution; who, having acquired an immense fortune, employed it in rendering himself useful by private and public benefactions, and accomplished his great scheme of utility, by providing for effectual service after his decease: the benefit of which is now experienced. He died at Hackney in the year 1611, aged 79. For a great part of the narration, this writer is indebted to 'An historical account &c.' long since published by Philip Bearcroft, D.D. preacher at the Charter-House from 1724 to 1754.

In volumes II. and III. the same plan seems to be continued; and although there be not a few instances of repetition; much occurs that is new, entertaining, and instructive; the author's reflections also continue sprightly and useful. At times he indulges too much in a forced declamatory strain: but, in general, his manner is not unpleasing, and bears marks of originating with himself or improving on the thoughts of others. Many are the short passages and remarks, which it would be agreeable to present to our readers, and which might furnish topics of reflection and conversation: but our notice must be brief.—One passage in the second volume requires to be

be specified, because it supports and recommends a practice at least of a dubious nature, and apparently of a dangerous tendency. The observation is occasioned by the oppressions and persecutions to which popery has given rise: 'It is much to be lamented (says Mr. Malcolm) that many amiable men suffered their zeal to overcome their prudence in the bigotted reign of Queen Mary. Obstinately determined to carry her point, and possessed of ample power to persecute, she could not be prevailed on by the mild effects of argument. They should not have directly opposed her, but have temporised, and reserved their all-convincing truths for less turbulent times. But unfortunately they preached against her doctrines, and she burned them for so doing.'—What will become of truth and honesty, should such reasoning prevail; and how should we ever have attained a *reformation* from popery and tyranny, had men allowed themselves thus to trifle with truth and conscience?—Mr. Malcolm surely cannot estimate dissimulation and prevarication as incumbent duties!

Besides the parishes and parish churches which are brought under review in the second volume, the reader will be entertained and instructed by the accounts of the several inns of court, halls, bridges, the Stock Exchange, Royal Exchange, Bank of England, Doctors' Commons, Herald's College, British Museum, &c. &c. These are, indeed, subjects which have been repeatedly offered to attention; and these renewed representations cannot be defended, unless they amend and improve former relations by additions and observations, which may on the whole contribute to the gratification and satisfaction of the reader. Something of this kind, we think, the present editor has been able to effect: but it is impossible for us to institute a comparison with his various predecessors.

On opening vol. III. our attention is immediately arrested by the cathedral of St. Paul; the history of which, in addition to what is previously said of St. Faith, &c. occupies not less than 198 pages. Of this number, many are employed in detailing benefactions, donations, chantries, &c. which, though individually, and according to the rate of money at this day, they may appear inconsiderable, really accumulate to a very large sum. 'The possessions of this church, (says the author) were so numerous, it is vain to think of particularizing them all;'—however it is added, 'the receipts, from every description of income amounted, many centuries past, to 1196l. 11s. 2d. *per annum.*' Prayers for the dead constituted a great part of the income. If we pity the ignorant superstition whence the practice arose, or if we censure the craft by which it was cherished, we may also justly contemplate the value of *peace of mind,*

mind, when we see persons so freely parting with what they most highly prize for its attainment! Several specimens of this kind are exhibited, concerning which it is said—'As Newcourt and Dugdale have extracted copiously from the archives of St. Paul relative to this part of my subject, I shall endeavour to lay before the reader *such information as they have omitted;* and which, in my opinion, is full as important as any they have given.' 'As for the tapers, brought to the church, they were usually burning; but this was a tedious method of melting them, and unproductive; the inferior officers of the church therefore conveyed them to a receptacle beneath the chapter-house, where they underwent a process more expeditious, and were sold to the best bidder.'

The former antient building appropriated to St. Paul, which was several times injured or nearly destroyed by fire, often renewed, repaired, and adorned, falls under a diligent review. It has been contended, with some earnestness, that a temple dedicated to Diana had been built on the spot, which, in 610, Ethelbert had chosen for the first christian church here erected. Our present compiler acknowledges this to be his opinion, and possibly it may be the truth. The late building appears to have been very magnificent, displaying with its steeple, spire, ball, cross, &c. much acquaintance with architecture, and ability in execution: but in the year 1666, it is well known, the devouring element, which had so often proved inimical, accomplished its ruin; or demolished it so far as to forbid all attempts for repairs. Accordingly, that noble structure, which so well fills its place, and is an ornament and honour to the whole kingdom, has been raised in its stead. Mr. Malcolm proceeds to a critical examination of this wonderful edifice, 'praising and censuring according to the best of his judgment;' and we are disposed to consider his remarks, on the whole, as pertinent and judicious. He laments the situation of this church, in which almost every spectator will join; wishing with him that some 'elevated spot had been chosen, where they might have encompassed it with a handsome square of the best houses in London.' Two sculptors are here recorded with applause; the one, Grinling Gibbons, who seems to have been of Dutch descent, though born in London;—'There is no instance of a man, says Vertue, before Gibbons, who gave to wood the loose and airy lightness of flowers, and chained together the various productions of the elements with a free disorder, natural to each species.' Mr. Malcolm adds, 'We may with equal justice say, that no man since his decease has been able to enter into competition with the specimens left by him in St. Paul's;' and he is even styled 'an unequalled

equalled artist.' He died in Bow-street, Covent-Garden, August 3, 1721 —The other, celebrated with him, is 'Caius Gabriel Cibber, who seems (it is here observed) to have been better known through his son Colly than by his own merit: and yet I do not hesitate to say, his works on stone are fully equal to those of his son on paper. The effects of his chissel at St. Paul's are unquestionably superior to those of any other sculptor employed in decorating the church.' 'Many of the defects,' Mr. M. with justice remarks, 'that are observable in the church of St. Paul, do not belong to the architect. He certainly was obliged to submit to the pitiable restrictions of men who were utterly devoid of taste, and this the world may perceive from the beautiful engraving of Rooker, representing the *St. Paul's* of *Sir Christopher Wren.*'—Among the minor deficiencies in this grand and beautiful edifice, we perceive that this writer numbers the infrequency both of sculpture and of paintings. The metropolitan church is now, however, become 'a receptacle for tombs;' and we hope that care will be taken to render them really ornamental to it. Mr. Bacon's letter concerning his statues of Howard and Johnson is preserved in this volume. Possibly the author has not criticized, so much as might be wished, the sculpture here exhibited: but few, if any, will object to this admonition:—'Let no man's praise be recorded *here*, whose existence is forgotten every where else: let no *false praise* defile the purity of this place.' The memorial to Captain Burgess is both commended and censured; and it is asked, 'if a man would redden with shame and indignation at barely being asked to enter a friend's house stripped, how is it that we dare prophane the house of God with such indecent representations?' Opposite to this tomb, is another devoted to the memory of the brave Captain Faulkner; and in this writer's lively manner it is remarked, '*uniformity* has been preserved almost to making this monument a *copy* of the other. Neptune supports the Hero; and Victory crowns him. It will be remembered, that this method of proceeding will save an infinite deal of what the North American Indians call *head-work*, or what we denominate invention.' Of these monuments, the first was executed by Banks, the other by Rossi.

It is here greatly lamented that Sir Christopher Wren should not have obtained some more direct and distinguished memorial: but we differ much from our historian: the inscription on his modest and unassuming tomb is, in our opinion, elegant and abundantly expressive; '*Lector, si monumentum requiris, circumspice.*' The magnificent edifice, constructed by his skill, his ingenuity, and his labour, is a splendid *mausoleum*, far excelling

celling any separate remembrancer, however costly it might be.

The pulpit-cross, or Paul's cross, as it seems to have been more generally termed, is an erection which in former days was very usual in church-yards, as appears by the remnants which in some of them are yet to be seen; and they might, as it is here intimated, be used in offering up prayers for the spirits of the deceased. At what time it received the addition of a pulpit cannot now be discovered: but it is undoubted that from it sermons were pronounced on the Sunday morning, as also on other occasions. Yet the spot was far from being appropriated solely to purposes of a religious or moral kind: 'it has been (says this writer) the stage for essays of intrigue, political defamation, curses, and confession of crimes; the support of preachers, whose doctrine hanged some, and burned others.'—Several instances are recorded of the different uses to which this building was applied; and we are also told of a considerable sum which was raiscd for the preachers, who are said to have received 45 or 40 *s.* for a sermon, besides their entertainment at the 'Shunamite's' house, a kind of inn allotted for them 'by the appointment of the church.'

It would have been very remarkable if the *school* of St. Paul had not met with distinction in these volumes: but we have not to complain of any such omission. This institution appears to have existed as early as the days of Henry I.: but Dean Colet, who was born A. D. 1466, and died A. D. 1519, was the man who raised it to the celebrity which it has long acquired, and still maintains. He was the intimate friend of Erasmus; a circumstance which may lead us to infer that he was also the friend of truth and liberty; as indeed appears from the few following lines in one of his letters to the learned foreigner, whom, writing of their controversies on theological subjects, he thus addresses; "When, like two flints, we are striking one another, if any spark of light flies out, let us eagerly catch at it; we seek not for our own opinion, but for the truth which, in this mutual conflict, may perhaps be extorted, as fire out of steel."

We have dwelt so long on this cathedral and its appendages, that all other articles must be excluded. Clerkenwell, Cripplegate, with a number of churches, parishes, halls, hospitals, &c., are duly visited by Mr. Malcolm. From the register of marriages in the church of St. Giles, we are furnished with this memorandum:—'1620. Aug. 22. Oliver Cromwell and Elizabeth Boucher,' which is attended by a print of each, rather singular in its kind; and to this record is added a very brief history of that extraordinary man, which, as a proof of candour, is drawn

from both enemies and friends.—In conclusion, we have only to observe that these volumes are, on the whole, productive of amusement and information; to which a pleasant addition is made by the numerous plates with which they are accompanied. **Hi.**

ART. XII. *Conversations introducing Poetry:* chiefly on Subjects of Natural History. For the Use of Children and young Persons. By Charlotte Smith. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Johnson. 1804.

GENUINE talents, and amiable dispositions, cannot be more honourably employed than in contributing to perpetuate their own benign influence from one generation to another. Among the numerous writers of reputation, who have devoted part of their leisure to the entertainment and instruction of the rising race, we are pleased to find the name of Mrs. Smith; who, within the compass of two small volumes, has contrived to convey, in agreeable language, several striking facts and pertinent remarks. The principal subjects of conversation are pleasingly blended with collateral incidents, and important moral truths.

Of the little poetical epistles, a few are truly beautiful, and all rise above mediocrity. 'There are seven pieces,' says Mrs. Smith, 'not my own, some of them a little altered, to answer my first purpose of teaching a child to repeat them; and five of my own reprinted. Of the remainder, though the relation to whom I am obliged, objected to my distinguishing them by any acknowlegement, it is necessary to say that where my interlocutors *praise* any poem, the whole or the greater part of it is *hers*.'

We shall exhibit a short specimen or two, in prose and verse.

The fourth conversation begins thus:

'Mrs. Talbot. The day opens propitiously for our meeting the dear friends we expect. I never saw the sun rise with more beauty, or promising finer weather.

'George. In half an hour, Mother, we shall be on our way; and in two hours we shall meet them, shall we not?

'Mrs. Talbot. I hope so; and as you know we were talking of omens yesterday, I will consider it as a favourable prognostic to the pursuit of our little studies in natural history, that I this morning found in my window one of those beautiful butterflies called the Admirable; and sometimes the Colonel—a fly which is rarely found in the house, though others, such as the Nettle Tortoise-shell, frequently are. In an impromptu I addressed my captive, and then gave him his freedom.

'Emily. It is that large black butterfly, with bright scarlet and white spots, one of which I saw in the garden yesterday.

'Mrs.

'Mrs. Talbot. The same—But perhaps I have not been altogether correct in my poetical history, insomuch as I have described the butterfly as emerging from the retreat it had chosen during the cold months; but it is more probable that the individual insect in question has been produced this Summer. For the progress of this species I understand to be, that a few that have passed the inclement season in the chrysalis state, are seen on the wing early in May; soon after which the female lays her eggs singly on the leaves of nettles. The caterpillar, immediately on being hatched, sews the leaf on which it finds itself round it like a case; the effect of wonderful instinct, to preserve itself from a particular species of fly called the ichneumon, which otherwise would destroy it, by depositing its eggs in the soft body of the caterpillar. But, as the caterpillar must have food as well as shelter, it feeds on the tender part of this covering, till the leaf becomes in too ruinous a state to be longer inhabited; then crawling to another, it again wraps itself up; and this happens till it is nearly full grown, and so much encreased in size, that one leaf will not serve it both for food and raiment. It therefore becomes more ambitious, and reaching the top of the nettle, connects several leaves together to make its house and supply its appetite; till being at length full grown, it suspends itself from a leaf, and puts on the armour that nature directs it to assume before its last and complete state of existence, which happens in sixteen or twenty days, according to the temperature of the air. Then the ugly deformed caterpillar is metamorphosed into the beautiful butterfly, one of which by some singular chance I found to-day.

'TO A BUTTERFLY IN A WINDOW.

'Escaped thy place of wintry rest,
And in the brightest colours drest,
Thy new-born wings prepared for flight,
Ah! do not, Butterfly, in vain
Thus flutter on the crystal pane,
But go! and soar to life and light.

'High on the buoyant Summer gale
Thro' cloudless ether thou may'st sail,
Or rest among the fairest flowers;
To meet thy winnowing friends may'st speed,
Or at thy choice luxurious feed
In woodlands wild, or garden bowers.

'Beneath some leaf of ample shade
Thy pearly eggs shall then be laid,
Small rudiments of many a fly;
While thou, thy frail existence past,
Shalt shudder in the chilly blast,
And fold thy painted wings and die!

'Soon fleets thy transient life away;
Yet short as is thy vital day,

Like

Like flowers that form thy fragrant food;
Thou, poor Ephemeron, shalt have filled
The little space thy Maker willed,
And all thou know'st of life be good.'

The *Robin's Petition* is also worthy of quotation:

'THE ROBIN'S PETITION.

" A suppliant to your window comes,
Who trusts your faith and fears no guile,
He claims admittance for your crumbs,
And reads his passport in your smile.

" For cold and cheerless is the day,
And he has sought the hedges round;
No berry hangs upon the spray,
Nor worm nor ant-egg can be found.

" Secure his suit will be preferr'd,
No fears his slender feet deter;
For sacred is the household bird
That wears the scarlet stomacher."

' Lucy the prayer assenting heard,
The feather'd suppliant flew to her,
And fondly cherish'd was the bird,
That wears the scarlet stomacher.

' Embolden'd then, he'd fearless perch
Her netting or her work among,
For crumbs among her drawings search,
And add his music to her song;

' And warbling on her snowy arm,
Or half entangled in her hair,
Seemed conscious of the double charm
Of freedom, and protection there.

' A graver moralist, who used
From all some lesson to infer,
Thus said, as on the bird she mused,
Pluming his scarlet stomacher—

" Where are his gay companions now,
Who sung so merrily in Spring?
Some shivering on the leafless bough,
With ruffled plume, aud drooping wing.

" Some in the hollow of a cave,
Consign'd to temporary death;
And some beneath the sluggish wave
Await reviving nature's breath.

" The migrant tribes are fled away,
To skies where insect myriads swarm,
They vanish with the Summer day,
Nor bide the bitter northern storm.

"But still is *this* sweet minstrel heard,
While lours December dark and drear,
The social, chearful, household bird,
That wears the scarlet stomacher.

"And thus in life's propitious hour,
Approving flatterers round us sport,
But if the faithless prospect lour,
They the more happy fly to court.

"Then let us to the selfish herd
Of fortune's parasites prefer,
The friend like this, our Winter bird,
That wears the scarlet stomacher."

As we trust that this publication will survive a first edition, we shall beg leave to remark that the style sometimes soars above the comprehension of the young; that it is rather too uniformly serious; and that it is sometimes deficient in interest. Little inaccuracies occur more frequently than we could have supposed. Besides the errors of the press which are noted at the end, we find *papillone*, *igneus fatuus*, *Saloop*, *Clemati*, *Papilis*, *Smygdalus* (for *amygdalus*) *columbo*, (for *columba*,) *Chelcidonium*, (for *chelidonium*,) *tricolar*, *convolvulas*, *Soldinella*, *mesphilus*, *pectum*, (for *pecten*,) *lariæ* (for *larix*,) *rober* (for *robur*,) &c. In the course of the same sentence, the singular sometimes glides into the plural. Thus, 'It is almost impossible for one who has always lived in splendid houses, moved from place to place in convenient carriages, and been constantly pampered with delicacies, till *their* appetites are even jaded, to put *themselves*' &c.—'of which the machinery *constitute* a considerable part.'—'Many an unhappy young person *date*,' &c.—*Brows* and *shews*, *hue* and *grow*, are indefensible rhymes.—In her enumeration of the genera of sea plants, the fair author omits *ulva*, though it is mentioned in other parts of the performance. We have likewise to acquaint her that opium is prepared from the white poppy; and that the Hottentots and Caffres are neither the same people, nor a negroe-race.—More sprightliness and more correctness, in short, are wanting to impart to these volumes all the usefulness which may be derived from such performances: but Mrs. Smith has done much, and will, we hope, do more.

Muir.

ART. XIII. *Lepidoptera Britannica; sistens digestionem novam Insectorum Lepidopterorum quæ in Magna Britannia reperiuntur, larvarum pabulo, temporeque pascendi; expansione alarum; mensibusque volandi; synonymis atque locis observationibusque variis. Autore* A. H. Haworth, *Lin. Soc. Londini Socio, atque Prodromi Lepidopterorum Britannicorum Genusque ad Mesembryanthemum observationum autore. Adjunguntur Dissertationes variæ ad Historiam Naturalem spectantes.* 8vo. 15s. Boards. Murray.

THE reader will find, in the 39th volume of our New Series, p. 212. a slight notice of the *Prodromus Lepidopterorum Britannicorum* of this author; and we then also announced a more elaborate extension of the same work. Mr. Haworth has now executed the first part of his enlarged design, in a manner which unites technical accuracy with much useful and entertaining information. Indeed, we regard the present exposition of Lepidopterous Insects as the only British publication of the kind which can be consulted with advantage. The multiplicity and minuteness of the author's observations can be duly appreciated by the entomologist alone: but ordinary readers may form some conception of the extent of his labours, of his diligence, and of his enthusiasm, from the perusal of his preface:

'Many years,' says he, 'have now elapsed since, with enthusiastic pleasure, I began to collect, arrange, and describe the natural productions of this our fertile and happy island; but more especially its *Birds*, *Insects*, and *Vegetables*.

'For these purposes I have diligently examined many parts of England personally, and usually on *foot* and alone; but sometimes accompanied by *pedestrian* friends of congenial sentiments and taste. Industriously we have sought, and never once in vain, a great variety of woods and lawns, hills and vales, marshes and fens; one summer only, travelling in various journeys, not fewer than a thousand miles; in spite of heat and cold, wet and drought, and various other concomitant impediments.—

'But the counties I have more particularly, and more successfully entomologized in, are, Middlesex, Sussex, Essex, Surrey, Kent, and the beautiful Isle of Thanet; Oxfordshire, Cambridgeshire, Lincolnshire, Westmoreland, and the several ridings of the great county of York. And lastly, although not least in my estimation, (because it is my native one), the little county of the town of Kingston-upon-Hull.

'From the first of my collecting insects, I have kept a *regular Aurelian Journal* of the *times and places* in which I beheld any of the *British Lepidoptera alive*, whether in the *Larva* (Caterpillar), *Puppa* (Chrysalis) or *Imago* (the winged or perfect state); never discarding from my memory the Linnæan maxim, "*Nulla dies sine linea.*"

We likewise learn that Mr. Haworth has absolutely beheld alive all the species which he describes, except the few whose names in the margin are marked with an asterisk.

The author's distribution of Linné's *Phalæna* into nine distinct genera, by characters taken from the structure of the antennæ, aided by others drawn from the larvæ, is the result of mature consideration, and of a diligent inspection of seventy cabinets and collections; including the *Aurelian*, which contains more British Lepidoptera than any in this country. The Linnéan characters, it is well known, are chiefly derived from the position of the wings of the living insect, when at rest; and, though we admit that many advantages result from the present innovations, we cannot but regret that the important circumstance, on which the former arrangement is founded, should be overlooked in the detailed descriptions.

Mr. Haworth's plan includes twelve Genera, namely, *Papilio*, *Sphinx*, *Zygæna*, *Bombyx*, *Noctua*, *Hepialus*, *Geometra*, *Phalæna*, *Pyralis*, *Tortrix*, *Tinea*, and *Alucita*. Of these, only the first four are discussed in this part of the publication.

1. The distribution of *Papilio* remains nearly the same as in the last edition of the *Systema Naturæ*; except that the secondary divisions of *Danai*, *Nymphales*, and *Plebei*, are raised to primary, and the new family of *Parnessii* is substituted for that of *Heliconii*. Seventy-two species are described; and two are quoted from Petiver, and nine from Turton, but which have not been observed by the author, either in a living or preserved state.

2. The two primary divisions of *Sphinx* are, *Legitimæ*, or Hawk-moths, and *Sesiæ*, or Humming-birds and Cleanwings. The first is subdivided into *Integrales*, or intire-winged, and *Dentales*, or dentated; the second, into *Tectæ*, or Humming-birds, and *Denudatæ*, or Cleanwings.—The species described are twenty-eight.

3. *Zygæna* is a new genus formed from Linné's third family of Sphinges, and has for characters, 'ANTENNÆ *medio vel potius versus apicem valde incrassatæ, apice subulatæ.*—ALÆ *tectæ squamis, opacæ.*—ABDOMEN *uniforme cylindraceum crassum, apice vix barbatum.*—LARVA *obesa.*'—It includes four species.

4. *Bombyx*, which comprizes both *Attacus* and *Bombyx* of the *Syst. Nat.*, is split into seven principal divisions, viz. *Maximi*, *Dentigeri*, *Cinerei*, *Albi*, *Tristigmatiferi*, *Bistigmatiferi*, and *Estigmatiferi*.—The total of species described is ninety-eight; not including nine which are mentioned by Turton as natives of Britain, and three noticed by Martyn, in his Aurelian's Vade Mecum.

For

For the sake of brevity, we have overlooked the subordinate sectional divisions, many of which are new, and all constructed with singular regard to accuracy. The Synonyms are copious and satisfactory. 'Thoughout the following pages,' says our learned entomologist, '*I have in every instance*, carefully, and in most cases repeatedly *examined the synonyms with my own eyes;* copying none from any one; and rejecting from every one, Linnæus himself not excepted, such as I conceived to be inaccurate or objectionable.'

The specific and detailed descriptions are entirely new-wrought, and from British specimens, whenever they were to be had. Descriptions of the *Larvæ*, and *Pupæ*, principally drawn from the *Entomologia Systematica* of Fabricius, have been likewise introduced with singular propriety.

As an interesting article, we select the account of *Bombyx Cossus:*

'B. M. (The Goat) Alis cinereis fuscis nebulosis, atro striatis; thorace exalbido fascia postica atra.

Linne Faun. Suec 1114.—*Linn. Syst. Nat. tom.* 2. *p.* 827. 63.—*Gmel. Syst. Nat.* 2431.—*Fab. Ent. Syst.* 3. 3. 1. *Cossus ligniperda.*—*Fab. Syst. Ent* 2. 569. 48.—*Fab. Mant. Ins.* 2. 116. 83.—*Fab. Spec. Ins.* 2. 182. 65.—*Villars Ent* 2. 168. 95.—*Ent. Par.* 258. 4—*Müll. Zool. Dan* 1372.—*Berk. Outl.* 1. 138. 27—*Faun. Ingr.* 692. *Cossus ligniperda.*—*Scop. Carn.* 500.—*Donov. Br. Ins.* 114.—*Harris Aur. t.* 23.—*Wilks, pl.*31.—*Theologie des Insectes, fig.* 17-22.—*Merian Eruc. pars* 3. *pl.* 36.—*Roes. Ins. cl.* 2. 18.—*Sebu Thes.* 4. 49. *C. et* 4. 51. *M.*—*Raj. Ins.* 150 2.—*Esper Schmet.* 3. *t.* 61.—*Albin's Ins.* 35.—*Schæf. Icon.* 41. 1. 2.—*Pet. Gaz.* 51. 9—*Goed. Ins.* 2. *pl.* 33.—*List. Goed. fig.* 39.—*Mouf. Ins.* 106. *f.* 1.

'Habitat paulo infrequens *Larva* in Ligno putrescente, vel subinde in Radicibus Plantarum; per tres annos vivat et crescit. *Imago* f. Junii Truncis.

'Expansio alarum M. 3 unc. 3 lin. F. 3 unc. 7 lin.

'Descriptio. *Larva* maxima subpilosa dorso sanguineo, subtus lutescente, capite anoque atris, stigmatibus utroque 8 fuscis.

"Romanis in hoc luxuria esse cæpit, prægrandesque roborum vermes delicatiore sunt in cibo, Cossos vocant, atque etiam farina saginati: hi quoque altilis fiunt." *Villars*, l. c. *ex Plin.* xvii. 24.

'Puppa læviter folliculata brunnea, incisuris ciliatis.

'Imago. Thorax fuscus antice albo, postice albicante, fascia angulata nigra. Abdomen percrassum fuscum incisuris albo marginatis. *Alæ anticæ* cinereo fuscoque nebulosæ strigis numerosis transversis fuscis, tribusque aliquo majoribus versus marginem posticum atris. *Alæ posticæ* magis cinereæ, minus striatæ. *Femina* mari simillima, at paulo major, antennæque minus pectinatæ seu setaceæ.

'Obs. The larger moths are very tenacious of life, and difficult to kill without spoiling them: the usual way of compressing the *thorax* is not sufficient: they will live several days after the most severe

pressure has been given there; to the great uneasiness of any humane Aurelian. The methods of suffocation by tobacco or sulphur are equally inefficacious, unles continued for a greater number of hours than is proper for the intended preservation of the specimens. Another mode now in practice is better; and however fraught with cruelty it may appear to the inexperienced collector, is the greatest piece of *comparative mercy* that can, in this case, be administered. When the larger Moths must be killed; destroy them at once, by the *insertion of a strong red-hot needle into their thickest parts, beginning at the front of the thorax.* If this is properly done, instead of *lingering through several days, they are dead in a moment.* It appears to me, however, that insects being animals of *cold and sluggish juices*, are not near so susceptible of the sensation we call pain, as those which enjoy a warmer temperature of body, and a swifter circulation of fluids. To the philosophic mind it is self-evident that they have not such acute organs of feeling pain, as other animals of a *similar size*, whose juices are endowed with a quicker motion, and possess a constant, regular, and genial warmth; such as young mice, or the naked young of small birds: if any of these have the misfortune to lose their heads or limbs from force, speedy death is the certain consequence: but insects, under similar circumstances, it is well known, are capable of surviving a considerable time. A forcible instance of this kind once occurred to my tutor in Entomology. He had a *Goat-moth* (Cossus) *whose head happened to be quite eaten off by some mouse*, notwithstanding which it lived several days in a decapitated state, without appearing less lively for it, and was at length killed by other means.

'Indeed, indeed, I cannot think that

—"The poor Beetle which we tread upon,
In corporal sufferance feels a pang as great
As when a giant dies."

'Nor can it be regretted that I differ from our great poet on this particular point, because the difference may ease the humane Entomologist of many a rising qualm.

'If insects were in reality possessed of the degrees of feeling pain, that have been erroneously attributed to them, they would never survive the loss of limbs forcibly torn off, as often happens to fighting Crabs, fighting Spiders, and Tipulæ self extricated from children's hands, or spider's webs, with the dear-bought ransom of their joints. Neither would common Flies live long without their heads, wings, or other parts; or Coleopterous Insects just escaped from the perforation of an Aurelian's pin, attempt to copulate with their mates:—yet all these things I have myself been an eye-witness to their doing. These facts, and these remarks, are surely capable of removing the numerous charges of cruelty, which have hitherto attached to the Collector of Insects. The cruelty daily practised by our London fishmongers is surely as great, in crimping cod-fish (which can only be done while they are alive,) and in keeping up the miserable remains of life in all other fish as long as possible after they are caught, by reiterated waterings upon their leaden stalls, from the fine rose-end of a garden watering-pot. Eels, carp, and flounders are kept tolerably vigororus

a day

a day or two in this manner, out of their proper element. However, as fish like insects, are animals of cold blood, it is very probable their susceptibility of feeling pain is much more obtuse than is generally supposed. It is indeed far from improbable that the feeling of pain in all living creatures, is in a ratio agreeing with the heat and velocity of their circulating fluids; those of course being the most acute, which possess the warmest and quickest flow. On this principle it becomes easy to explain why an inflamed wound, in any animal, occasions more pain than one that is not inflamed. The sum of pain, and the degree of inflammation, increase and decrease in equal ratios. The wounds of fish and insects inflame but little if at all.

'Obs. 2. *Cossus* is one of the few species of *Lepidopterous Insects*, which possess properties injurious to mankind during the Larva state. They do considerable damage to young willow trees, by boring into their trunks in various directions, and feeding upon the wood and pith; often weakening the tree so much as to cause its easy overthrow from the first storm that attacks it afterwards (*vide Curtis in Linn. Tr. vol.* 1. *p.* 86.). Probably the best mode of preventing this mischief would be to search for, and destroy the sluggish females, at the end of June, which from their large size would be readily found sticking upon the trees near the infected parts. The Larvæ of *Pyrinus*, and those of several small *Sphinges*, bore into the pith of various trees, in a similar manner: but their inferior sizes, and rare occurrence, render them objects of little consequence in an œconomical point of view. But the Larvæ of several internal feeding *Cerambyces* make great havoc. *Vide Kirby on Cerambyx violaceus in Linn. Tr. vol.* 5. *p.* 246, &c.)'

If the non-descript *Lepidoptera*, contained in this valuable work, should fall short of the expectations of the curious, let it not be forgotten that the size and beauty of such insects have long rendered them objects of general search, and that perhaps not many remain to be discovered.—It is intended that the complete work should be accompanied by a glossary of entomological terms, appropriate figures, and a table of colours. The author, moreover, generously pledges himself to give up his very extensive cabinet to the Aurelian Society, without fee or reward, as soon as the living members of that body shall amount to twenty.

It is now time that we glance at the additional matters contained in the present volume.

The first Dissertation is intitled, 'A new arrangement of the Genus *Mesembryanthemum*; containing a full account of all the species hitherto discovered, with complete descriptions of such of them as have not been described before; also, their places of growth, duration, and times of flowering.' This may be considered as a very extended supplement to the author's observations on the same subject, which were published about twelve years ago. We could have wished that the two essays had

been thrown into a regular form, and presented a consistent view of such a numerous and interesting genus. Only forty-five species were known to the great Swedish naturalist. *Willdenow* enumerates eighty-six: but Mr. Haworth, who has long cultivated the genus with peculiar fondness, now discriminates not fewer than two hundred and eleven species. 'With infinite difficult and unwearied perseverance,' says he, 'I have collected together in a living state, above one hundred and sixty species and many varieties, a number not only calculated to surprize both the Botanist and Horticulturist, but to create a disbelief of their reality and existence; if it was not in my power to exhibit, at any time, the originals themselves in a living state; and thereby effectually remove, from the mind of every sceptical naturalist, all doubts that can possibly be entertained on that head.'

The observations which are annexed to the descriptions are mostly of a critical nature: but occasionally they assume a more interesting and physiological cast. Thus, under *Mesembryanthemum floribundum*, we find the following:

'The mature and exsiccated capsules of many, and probably of all *Mesembryanthema*, but of this species in particular, possess in a very lively manner, the properties of an Hygrometer. In showery weather in autumn, I have seen them expand, and contract themselves again several times in the course of a day. When expanded, they have a pretty, but very unusual appearance; and resemble considerably the flowers of a *Stapelia*; but their segments are more obtuse. If the dried capsules are well moistened with water, or any other fluid of equal tenuity, they will unfold themselves in the course of a very few minutes; and when dried again, they will spontaneously close up.

'In every stage of this extraordinary occurrence, I behold and contemplate the wise contrivances of an *omnipresent* CREATOR. These humble vegetables are hereby enabled to sow their seeds, at that moment of time which is unquestionably the most proper for them; that is, when the sandy deserts of their nativity are moistened with the seasonable blessings of rain, which not only assists in expelling the seeds from their expanded lodgements, but absolutely *imbeds* them in a soil prepared for their reception.'

The second Dissertation contains a botanical description of the Genus *Tetragonia*. According to the present arrangement, it consists of nine species, viz. *expansa*, *hirsuta*, *crystallina*, *fruticosa*, *decumbens*, *tetrapteris*, *spicata*, *herbacea*, and *echinata*. *Tetrapteris* is thus the only addition to those already noticed by *Thunberg* and *Willdenow*. It corresponds to *Tetragonia α* of the *Hortus Cliffortianus*.

Dissertation III. relates to the characters, descriptions, habitations, and synonyms of the known species of *Portulaca*;

which, according to Mr. Haworth, amount to nineteen.—The fourth presents a new arrangement of all the species of *Saxifraga* which are cultivated in British gardens. This is obviously one of the author's favourite subjects; and he treats it with much ability and skill. Of the forty-nine species which are here discussed, twenty six are natives of this country.

Dissertation V. is occupied with descriptions of twenty-four new species of exotic plants, comprising three sorts of *Crassula*, one of *Ornithogalum*, four of *Narcissus*, one of *Cotyledon*, three of *Oxalis*, four of *Euphorbia*, one of *Sempervivum*, six of *Cactus*, and one of *Cacalia*.—The sixth and last of these dissertations is devoted to a few minute strictures on some of the technical terms of Botany.

We look forwards with pleasing expectation to the appearance of the second part of Mr. Haworth's *Lepidoptera*, and to the sequel of his Dissertations. The latter, it is hinted, will probably include '*Aves Britannicæ, seu Synopsis Avium Britannicarum*, with Remarks,—*Reptilia Britannica*, with Remarks,—An Account of the Genus *Crassula*, of the Genus *Euphorbia*, of the Genus *Cactus*; —and other pieces.'

The style of the present publication is generally unexceptionable: but we have occasionally remarked something like an unnecessary display of learned phraseology, and a too frequent recurrence of parentheses. The blending of Latin descriptions with English observations, though countenanced by some respectable authorities, betrays a disregard of unity in the execution which we cannot commend. Even the observations are sometimes communicated in English and sometimes in Latin. These trivial blemishes, however, are greatly counterbalanced by the sterling merits of unwearied industry, acute research, and the liberal devotion of time, talents, and fortune to the scientific contemplation of the productions of Nature.

Mutr.

ART. XIV. *Law Report. Court of King's Bench, Ireland.* Arguments of Counsel, and Opinions of the Judges, in the Case of the King *v.* Mr. Justice Johnson. 8vo. pp. 110. 4s. 6d. sewed. Dublin. 1805.

ART. XV. *A full and faithful Report of the Proceedings in His Majesty's Court of Exchequer in Ireland,* in the Case of the Honorable Mr. Justice Johnson, containing the Arguments of Counsel, and the Opinions delivered from the Bench, as taken from original Documents; with an Appendix, comprising the Act of the 44th of George III. c. 92. the Writ of Habeas Corpus, &c. The whole carefully revised and corrected by John Swift Emerson, Solicitor to Mr. Justice Johnson. 8vo. pp. 238. 4s. 6d. sewed. Printed at Dublin, London re-printed for Stockdale. 1805.

BY the common law of England, crimes are local, and the jurisdictions in which they are tried are also local. Until as recent a period as the late reign, our criminal code was so imperfect that it could not bring to punishment an offender committing a crime in one county, and escaping to another previously to arrest. This inconvenience was removed by statutes 23 and 24 of Geo. II.; what these laws effected as between county and county in England, the 13th Geo. III. accomplished between England and Scotland; and the object of the 44th Geo. III. c. 92, was to attain the same end with regard to Ireland. The course, in all these statutes, is for a warrant to be issued in the jurisdiction in which the offence has been committed, and to have it backed by a person having authority to grant warrants in the jurisdiction in which the offender is found.

On a suspicion of his being the author of a libel published in London, the Honorable Robert Johnson, one of the Justices of the Common Pleas of Ireland, was arrested under a warrant of Lord Ellenborough, backed by a Magistrate of the County of Dublin, where the learned Judge resided. In pursuance of a writ of Habeas Corpus sued out by Mr. Justice Johnson, the validity of his arrest came under the consideration of the Court of King's Bench of Ireland, and the question was whether the act of the 44th. of the king authorized the arrest. The proceedings in the court on that occasion form the contents of the first of these pamphlets.

Mr. Justice Johnson's Counsel contended that, in order to render a person amenable under the 44th. of the king, there must be an escape by him from the jurisdiction in which the offence had been committed. Now, it was sworn by the Defendant that he was not in England at the time of the alleged offence being committed, that he had not been there for some time before, nor had he been in that country ever since. The offence was laid

laid as having been committed in London in 1803, and Mr. J. Johnson had not been in that capital since 1802. As there is no provision in the act to enable the magistrate backing the warrant to take bail, the learned Judge's counsel hence inferred that the statute did not extend to bailable offences; and that therefore their client, being charged with an offence of that order, did not come within the meaning of the act. By the Habeas Corpus Act, moreover, no subject of England can be removed against his will into either Ireland or Scotland under most heavy penalties, except in the case of persons charged with having committed capital offences in either of those countries; and the counsel of Mr. Justice Johnson maintained, that the extension of the new law to cases of misdemeanour would be to repeal the most beneficial statute in the British code by a side wind: which could never be supposed to have been intended by the legislature.

It was argued by the Counsel for the Crown, that the construction put on the statute by the other side would have the effect of rendering the act wholly inoperative, as before its enactment persons charged with the higher crimes were amenable; and that it was sufficient to bring the case within the statute, that the Defendant was charged with an offence committed in England, and that he was at the time of the arrest resident in Ireland.

One of the judges of the Court being one of the persons whom the libel attacked, he was absent; of the other three, two, including the Chief Justice, thought that the arrest was valid: while one, Mr. Justice Day, was of opinion that the Defendant ought to be set at liberty. The last learned Judge held that the statute extended to bailable as well as non-bailable cases: but he conceived that, in order to bring an offender under its operation, he must have been within the jurisdiction and have escaped from it. The escape, in his judgment, warranted the non-allowance of bail in the jurisdiction to which the offender had fled. He also denied that on his construction there would be any failure of justice, because Judge Johnson might be tried in Ireland. The Counsel for the Defendant had laid stress on the commission of the offence having preceded the passing of the act, and urged that the arrest was a proceeding on an *ex post facto* law; and Mr. Justice Day observed that *his* construction steered clear of this imputation.—Erasmus, speaking of a certain heretical doctrine, says that he would have given it his assent, *si sic voluisset ecclesia*; in like manner, we are free to declare that we should have been fully satisfied with the conclusions of Mr. Justice Day, *si sic voluisset curia.*

Mr. Justice Johnson also sued a writ of Habeas Corpus out of the court of Exchequer, in consequence of which the same question

question came to be disscussed there; as reported in the second of these pamphlets. Three out of four of the Judges held the arrest to be valid. Mr. Baron Smith followed very much in the same course with that which his brother Day had taken in the King's Bench; and the Baron's speech is singularly able and perspicuous.—It cannot be denied that, on the construction put on the statute by these learned Judges, it is most consistent with itself, best harmonizes with the spirit and maxims of our jurisprudence, and the least interferes with the most important provisions of the Habeas Corpus Act.

The proceedings here detailed must be regarded as of very great importance, and as requiring the attention of all who take a part in our public affairs. Very serious and manifold inconveniences may arise from measures which may be grounded on the statute as construed by the Irish Courts.

This cause has since been decided on a trial at bar in the Court of King's Bench, London; and Judge Johnson was found guilty of the crime laid in the indictment: viz. of having written and published two letters in one of the London Weekly Newspapers, containing a libel against his Majesty's Government in that part of the United Kingdom called Ireland; as appears by the next article. Jo.

ART. XVI. *Report of the Trial at Bar of the Hon. Mr. Justice Johnson*, one of the Justices of his Majesty's Court of Common Pleas in Ireland, for a Libel. In the Court of King's Bench, the 23d of November, 1805. Taken in short-hand by T. Jenkins and G. Farquharson. 8vo. pp. 120. 2s. 6d. Butterworth. 1806.

THE extraordinary, or at least the unusual part of this case is confined to the apparatus employed in the scenes which preceded the denouement here presented to us. It is with reference to the matters which were preliminary to the trial, that doubts and perplexities may arise; it is the antecedent history, and not the final event, which invites criticism, and occasions cool and considerate men to pause and reflect. We speak of persons who take large views of things; and who are less eager that punishment should in every instance reach the offence, than that the great principles which constitute the privileges, or rather the prerogatives of a British subject, (if we may use the expression,) should be duly respected and sanctified. In this remark, we refer to the circumstance of some of the enactments, which operated in the suit, being posterior to the commission of the offence; and to the construction of a clause in one of them, on which it was adjudged that the arrest of Mr. Justice Johnson was valid. We are informed that the law in question is not *ex post facto*, because it relates

to

to process, and not to the substance of the offence: but we own that, to our plain understandings, the distinction is more obvious than the soundness of the conclusion founded onit; and we are of opinion that it is laudable to feel anxiety that those principles on which depend our individual security, and our consequent national prosperity, should not in the least be violated or disregarded; that it is commendable to harbour extreme jealousy of any steps that should indirectly invade their authority, or enfeeble their influence. Any occasional failure of justice is not to be put in comparison with the preservation, in their full vigour and integrity, of those fundamental rules on which our civil liberty stands firm and unshaken.

The trial itself, as may be expected in the instance of every solemn procedure in our high courts, bears the stamp of the ability and impartiality of the bench, and of the integrity of the jurors.

If the witnesses for the defendant are more numerous by one than those which were called for the prosecution, it will be recollected that *testes ponderantur non numerantur;* and that two of the former rendered themselves open to the forcible observations made by the court on their conduct in giving their testimony. The experiments, also, in which the defendant and his friends had been concerned previously to the hearing of the cause, must have operated in reducing the weight of the evidence on the same side; since the effect attempted in them was nothing short of blotting from our books one entire head of evidence, of most extensive application in both criminal and civil proceedings. The same experiments also exposed to view a preparation with regard to the witnesses, of which tribunals must ever entertain extreme jealousy; and which must materially lower the value of the testimony of persons so circumstanced. Had the witnesses for the defence merely negatived the hand-writing, and gone no farther, the province which the jury had to discharge would have been rendered far more difficult. Taking into our view all the circumstances, not only did the verdict coincide with the moral persuasion of every man, and not only was it supported by clear legal evidence, but it was the only verdict which an enlightened jury, under the able direction which it received, could have returned: there was nothing like an equilibrium in the case.

We cannot entertain a doubt that, whenever the clause on which the Irish courts held the arrest of Judge Johnson to be valid, comes to be brought into action on this side of the water, the construction of it will undergo farther discussion before our own supreme tribunals. It is a matter of the very highest consequence.

Great

Great pains seem to have been taken to render the present report correct; and, as far as we can judge, they have been attended with success. It is not free, however, from several verbal mistakes, which materially affect the sense: thus, in page 61. *provocation* is put for *protection*; p. 66. *frequent* for *pregnant*; p. 67. *against* for *as well*; and several others, which we could point out.

Jo.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JANUARY, 1806.

TRAVELS.

Art. 17. *Travels in Trinidad,* during the Months of February, March, and April 1803, in a Series of Letters, addressed to a Member of the Imperial Parliament of Great Britain. Illustrated with a Map of the Island. By Pierre F. M'Callum. 8vo. pp. 360. 8s. 6d. Boards. Sold by all Booksellers. 1805.

THIS volume relates wholly to the unfortunate disputes which took place at Trinidad, between the British Commissioners in that island, which have become the subject of judicial investigation at home, and into which we are not competent to enter. An *ardent spirit* seems to have actuated Mr. M'Callum in his conduct, and in his composition; which, though literary excisemen, we are not qualified to guage. He asserts its purity, but there may be some doubts whether it be not above proof.

G.2.

POETRY.

Art. 18. *Trafalgar; or Nelson's last Triumph.* A Poem. By the Honourable Martin Bladen Hawke. 4to. 2s. Diddier and Tebbett.

Nelson is "prais'd, wept, and *honoured,*" in general, by the Muse of Mr. Hawke: but from this commendation we must except the following lines:

'Is there a heart among *ye* has not bled?
"For England mourns her mighty Nelson dead!"
Nor wish'd to fall'n France her fleet again,
While we preserv'd the Hero and the *Man.*'

Other passages, however, display the writer's muse to more advantage; and we copy with pleasure those couplets which include an enumeration of the gallant Admiral's most splendid victories:

'When the proud Dane, from Copenhagen's tow'r,
Flush'd with false triumph, claim'd the doubtful hour,
Thy gen'rous spirit prov'd with eager care,
That British Seamen *conquer but to spare.*
Nor less thy fame in wild Calabria's Bay,
Made the fierce lion quit his destin'd prey,
And Rome's proud Citadel submissive own
That British prowess sav'd a Cæsar's throne.

'Deep

'Deep had we mourn'd Destruction's powerful sway,
That urg'd o'er Austria's plains her fatal way.
Where the dark Danube rolls his rapid wave,
Full many a warrior found an early grave,
And Europe's fate appear'd already o'er,
When Vict'ry gleam'd on fam'd TRAFALGAR's shore,
Since Mantinea's fatal day was won
By Theban prowess and Polymnio's son,
Ne'er has the ocean, or the carnag'd plain,
View'd such a combat—such a Hero slain!
Tho' the keen bayonet's compulsive pow'rs
Force trembling conscripts from Liguria's bow'rs,
Still France shall mourn, on many a distant day,
The dread destruction of Trafalgar's Bay.
TRAFALGAR—cherish'd—but lamented name,
Our future heroes shall record thy fame;
Oft' point to Cadiz tow'rs with anxious care,
And tell how NELSON bled in triumph there.'

Some of the expressions are trite: but, on this great occasion, the desire of offering an early tribute to the merits of the departed hero will not allow of that touching and re-touching which poetic composition requires.

Mo-y.

Art. 19. *An Ode on the Victory and Death of Lord Viscount Nelson.* 8vo. 2s. Boosey.

Among the poetical *Nelsoniana* to which the memorable events of the 21st of October last have given birth, this Ode will not appear to disadvantage, as the reader will perceive from a single specimen:

'Ye lights of triumph! ah! no longer burn!
For he who bade you shine will never more return!
Cold is th' intrepid heart! and dim that eye!
And motionless that hand
Which held the sword of Victory;
And mute that tongue, which valour could command.
No mortal arm could save
The bravest of the brave.
Bring laurels that for ever bloom,
And strew around our Nelson's tomb!
And ye, sweet pensive Nymphs, to whom belong
The elegiac song,
Your wreaths of cypress and of willow wear!
Britannia's heartfelt loss lament,
In plaintive notes record the dire event,
And to each distant clime the mournful tidings bear!
For every virtuous bosom shall deplore
That Nelson is no more!'

The Verses subjoined on the Victory of the Nile, written by a Lady, are not of equal merit with the Ode, which has also some prosaic lines.

Do

Art.

Art. 20. *A Monody on the Death of the late universally lamented Hero of the Nile, Copenhagen, and Trafalgar, the Right Hon. Horatio Lord Viscount Nelson,* who fell gloriously off Cadiz, Oct. 21, 1805. By Charles Abbot, D.D. F.L. & A.S., &c. 4to. 1s. 6d. Crosby and Co.

To represent Britannia weeping over the tomb of Nelson is poetical in a Monody: but the following thought is downright bombast:

'Yet now he bleeds;—SUN, on this awful day
Hide from a mourning world thy envious ray,
Since Death from Britain's view his conqu'ror shrouds,
Turn what remains to angry storms and clouds.'

The old women, however, will say that Dr. Abbot, if he be not a poet, is at least a wizard; for since Nelson's death we have had scarcely any interval from storms.

In the following couplet, Glory speaks as if she acted in a kind of partnership with Heaven for the benefit of this country:

'Yet Britain, honour'd thus by Heav'n and *me*,
Proclaim'd th' unrival'd ruler of the sea.'

The address to Britons, towards the conclusion, is not an unfavourable specimen of the poetry:

'O ye brave Britons! who with zeal aspire
To emulate my Hero's martial fire,
Who'd gladly renovate each proud campaign,
St. Vincent's fight, Aboukir's crimson'd main,
Can conquest, that has never yet declin'd
To separate my warriors from mankind,
Soothe your sad minds, or into calm surprise
Whilst the dear Nelson still unburied lies?
Ah me! that he whose arm so lately bore
My mimick thunders to each distant shore,
Sould seal his Country's glories with his doom,
Be borne about the waves, and want a tomb!'

A description of the funeral procession follows; and while poets are thus honouring the hero's sepulchral obsequies, is it not an indecorous circumstance that his coffin should be made a mercenary object of exhibition, and shewn like the elephant at Exeter 'Change for a shilling?

Mo.

Art. 21. *Monody on Admiral Lord Viscount Nelson*; who, after a Series of transcendent and heroic Services, fell gloriously, Oct. 21, 1805, in the Battle of Trafalgar, at the Moment of obtaining the most brilliant and decisive Victory recorded in the Annals of Great Britain. By George Richards, A.M. F.A.S., late Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford. 4to. 1s. Cadell and Davies.

We cannot announce this Monody in terms that would be flattering to the author; yet, in consideration of the goodness of his intention, we shall be as civil to him as the rules of our court will permit, and merely ask him whether such couplets as these are creditable either to his muse or to the hero whom he would commemorate?

'The

'The tear would gush; for who can deem a good
E'en Nelson's Conquest, gain'd by Nelson's blood.'

'And born in ancient ages dark and drear,
When laws were weak and savage foes were near.'

''Tis Nature's sigh; 'tis Nature's tears are shed:
We knew him living, and we mourn him dead.'

'Where is the region on this rolling ball
But knew his glory, and regards his fall?'

As a scholar, Mr. R. must know that the law for poetic compositions is *Dulcia sunto*. The concluding lines are of a better complexion:

'And, trust the Muse, on many a distant day,
When the tall vessels, on the watery way,
Bear from the realms of morn to Britain's shores
Golconda's gems and India's spicy stores,
As o'er the seas in shadowy pomp they sail,
And the long streamers play before the gale,
If seen from far, Trafalgar's summits gleam
With the mild radiance of the evening beam,
The sailor, pointing to the spot, shall tell,
"There Nelson conquer'd, and there Nelson fell."
A passing look the wondering eye shall turn;
And the big heart midst scenes of glory burn.
'God of the world, by whose divine decree
Britannia's Cross in conquest rides the sea;
Our voice in this triumphant hour we raise:
Propitious hear our Prayer, accept our Praise.
Be thine the glory, that his conquering prow
So oft from combat bore the captive foe:
And oh! in mercy may thy high command
Raise other Nelsons to protect our Land.'

Mo-y.

ART. 22. *A Poem on the Death of Admiral Lord Nelson*, with Hints for erecting a National Monument to perpetuate his honoured Memory, and that of the gallant Heroes who with him have fought, bled, and conquered, in the Cause of Britain. By Thomas Marshall, late of the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. 4to. 1s. Cawthorn.

This bard is animated with magnificent conceptions for the purpose of doing honour to the hero of Trafalgar; and he suggests the idea of erecting, at the national expence, a vast pyramid to the memory of *Nelson*, *Duff*, *Cooke*, &c. which is to be inscribed with lines to the following purport:

'STRANGER!—If hither drawn by curious eye,
Thou seek'st to know what means this massive pile;
Know, 'tis the homage that a grateful land,
Pays to her sons who fought in Britain's cause,
And with their sacred blood, her freedom seal'd!
BRITONS;—whom gratitude shall hither lead,

Keep ever in your minds this truth impress'd —
"Next to your GOD, your COUNTRY claims your love—"
Here bring your sons; and while with feeling hearts,
You speak the praises of the glorious dead,
Teach them to tread where NELSON trod before,
And emulate the virtues which they weep '—

If Mr. Marshall has not "built the lofty rhime," he has yielded to patriotic feelings; which several writers besides himself have mistaken for poetic inspiration.

Mon.

Art. 23. *The Death of the Hero.* Verses to the Memory of Lord Viscount Nelson. 4to. 1s. C. and R. Baldwin.

The quaintness of the following couplet might have been admired in the last age,

'Death! lo! he lives; the general tears that start
Proclaim the hero lives in every heart.'

The poet hopes that this living of the hero in our hearts will stimulate future Nelsons to acts of glory:

'We *have* a country!—hear me, God! we have
A country that contains a Nelson's grave.'—

This is a couplet which contains more truth than poetry; and to other couplets in this short poem, the same remark would apply.

Do.

Art. 24. *Verses on the Death of Lord Nelson.* 4to. 1s. Clarke.

When a host of writers are occupied on the same subject, a monotony of sentiment must prevail. Lord Carlisle, whom we understand to be the author of this poetic tribute, has taken the common thought of the pleasure resulting from victory being embittered by the death of the conquering hero: but he has given it a kind of novelty, and has heightened the compliment, by introducing the enemy exulting even in his defeat because Nelson is numbered with the slain:

'Nelson's no more! exclaims th' exulting Gaul,
And views a future Navy in his fall.
O noble meed of worth, of high renown
As bright a Glory round true Valour thrown,
As Brition bending o'er her fallen Chief,
Forgetting all her Conquest in her grief'

The Earl means to say that the exultation of the foe is as glorious to the hero, as the grief of his countrymen: but the third and fourth lines, as they now stand, are not a complete sentence.

The concluding stanza is truly patriotic; being strongly expressive of the feelings of a noble minded Briton, who does not wish to outlive the independence of his country, and would rather see her annihilated than enslaved:

'Almighty Powers! then grant our Country's prayer,
O let her not the lot of others share:
Sooner than bid his foreign yoke obey
Plunge her white cliffs beneath the roaring sea.

Do.

Art.

Art. 25. *Werneria*, or, Short Characters of Earths: with Notes according to the Improvements of Klaproth, Vauquelin, and Hauy. By Terræ Filius. 12mo. pp. 113. 4s. Boards. Baldwins. 1805.

This reduction of the principal Wernerian characters of minerals into blank verse reminds us of the attempts of Grammarians to express Latin flexions and rules of Syntax in regular hexameters. Notwithstanding the apparent absurdity and obvious difficulty of such an extraordinary task, the writer who has here undertaken it evinces ingenuity, and even occasional success in the execution of his plan. Yet we are not certain that the science of mineralogy can be much promoted by *technical poetry*, of which the smoothest lines are to be regarded rather as literary curiosities than as precepts of much practical utility; and of which the *generality* of the lines may convey good scientific information, but can scarcely be called *verse*.

In point of *doctrine*, the present author is not a bigotted Wernerian: for, though the descriptions are mostly borrowed from the Professor of Freyberg, the genera and species are set down according to the arrangement of Born and Babington; while the notes exhibit some of the principal analytical results of the first authorities.—This *experiment* applies only to the *Earths*: but, should it be encouraged, we are informed that it may probably be extended to the *metals* and the *Inflammables*.

As an example of the text and notes, we cite the account of the third Genus.

'GENUS III.—BARYT.

Schwererde. Germ.

'Baryt to water gives the properties
Of lime; with acid muriatic join'd,
Forms salts that crystallize, — — —

'SPECIES I.—*Sulfate of Baryt.*

Baroselenite, Schwerspath, Ponderous Spar.

'When crystalliz'd becomes transparent, and
Through laminæ pellucid gives the day;
In colour white, or grey, flesh red, or pale,
Ochry, yellow, cracks in the flame like spar
Calcareous, and melts with heat intense

Like

'BARYT—The artificial carbonate of baryt is in form pulverulent, white, pungent, and heavy specifically 400. It unites with sulphur into a species of hepar, which has violent effects taken internally.

'SULFATE OF BARYTES is harder than carbonate of lime, and softer than fluate. Its crystals are aggregated lengthened octohedrons, with wedge-like summits, or tabular, with four corners bevilled at their angles, and edges of their extremities; or hexedral, with sharp dihedral summits, or rhomboidal. A small bit taken from the blow-pipe, after having been there an instant, and applied to the tongue, gives a taste of rotten eggs. It has more than twice the quantity of heavy

 earth,

Like cobalt into glass, and if calcin'd
In open fire, in contact with the flame,
It grows phosphoric, and is in darkness
Visible. — — —

'SPECIES II.—*Carbonate of Baryt.*

'The carbonate of baryt most commonly
Is found in mass amorphous; but sometimes
In crystals of six sides, with pyramids
Join'd base to base; of faint transparency,
In texture compact, and with diverging
Striæ, in lustre moderate, milk-white,
Or greyish, or with a tinge of yellow,
By no means hard, and yielding to the knife.

'SPECIES III.—*Liberstein, Liver-stone.*

'This stone, when heated red, emits a smell
Of sulphur, is in texture foliate,
And partly striate.' — — —

---

earth, than sulphuric acid. In sp. gr. it is 4—865 when pure, requiring for its solution 43,000 times its weight in water. It occurs in metallic mines, in veins, and nodules, and makes a part in certain compound rocks. The Bologna stone is a variety of sulfate of barytes, and is the first example of phosphorescence being procured by calcination. Carasciolo, about one hundred years ago, thought, from the weight of the Bologna-stone, to have found silver in it, but he discovered nothing but a reddish light, which the calcined stone emitted in the dark. At that time phosphorescence was a rare occurrence; now it would be as strange to find a substance, which could not be made luminous by dissolution, or by calcination. We make no use of sulfate of baryt in the arts. The Chinese, it is said, use chekao in their porcelain, which resembles the Bologna-stone. Analysis of sulfate of baryt, by Withering,

Baryt..... 67.
Sulphuric acid..... 32—8.

'CARBONATE OF BARYT, in weak nitric acid, deposits a white substance of a fine colour before its perfect dissolution. It is phosphorescent, and breaks scaly, and wavy, and appears somewhat greasy. It contains,

Carbonic acid..... 20—8.
Baryt..... 78—6.

'The crystals of carbonate of baryt are not very common. It is a poison for rats, and is the rat-stone. Journal des Mines, N. 21, p. 36, de Pelletier.

'Spec. gr. 4—2919. Found at Anglesark, near Chorley, Lancashire.

'LIVER-STONE comes from Konigsberg in Norway, where it served for a matrix of native silver, of which M. Manthey gave M. Hauy a specimen. Its spec. grav. is 2—666. It does not effervesce with acids. Its analysis is, sulfate of baryt 38, silex 33, sulfate of alumine 22, sulfate of lime 7, petroleum 5. Bergman.'

Of

Of dull and unmusical lines, we may easily conceive that the number is not inconsiderable: but a few instances may suffice.

'Some than others are more perfect, and hence' —
'In powder; in colour white; in taste hot.'—
'Or with ore spathose incrusted, is half'—
'In texture with parallelopipids
'Rhombidally compressed; if 'bove redness,' &c.

Should the author find it worth his while to *versify* the metals, or attempt to celebrate the *Inflammables* in *glowing* numbers, we hope that he will be able to avoid the repetition of such measured prose. He has evidently bestowed considerable attention on his subject; and we believe him to be capable of sketching an outline of mineralogy in neat and perspicuous language.

The Rev. Stephen Weston is the reputed author of this singular production. Muir.

LAW.

Art. 26. *The whole Trial of Col. Robert Passingham and John Edwards*, for a Conspiracy against George Townsend Forrester, Esq. Barrister, with intent to deprive the said George Forrester of his Wife and Property; and charging him with many unnatural Crimes: with the whole Pleadings of the Counsel, before Lord Ellenborough, Chief Justice of the King's Bench, 21st February, 1805; and the Speech of Mr. Justice Grose on pronouncing Sentence, July 2d., &c. 8vo. 1s. Butters.

It was observed, we believe, by Lord Ellenborough on this trial, that the evidence was too shocking to be heard in a court of justice, and certainly too horrid to be disseminated. On this principle, it would be improper for any publisher to print the '*whole trial*,' as is stated in this title page, but which certainly is not given in the pamphlet, which contains only a summary. The defendants were sentenced to be imprisoned in Newgate for three years. G, 2.

Art. 27. *The Trial of Capt. William Smith*, of the East India Company's Battalion of Artillery, for Criminal Conversation with Mrs. Mary Bond, Wife of Lieut. Charles Bond, of the same Corps; before Sir Benjamin Sulivan, Knt. Recorder, and a Special Court assembled at Bombay, Feb. 13th, 1804. 8vo. 3s. Ginger.

If it be but too notorious that the crime here recorded has lately become very prevalent in this part of the world, it cannot be surprising that it should occur in the more luxurious climate of Asia. The chief purport of the publication of the present trial, in this country, seems to be to afford a proof that, as the editor observes, 'the laxity of morals in India is not only subject to the check of the laws, but is accompanied by every mark of public obloquy and contempt.' We are glad if this be generally found to be the consequence of this infringement of all law, divine and human; for we are persuaded that the *general resentment of society* would much more effectually restrain the commission of this crime, than the award of pecuniary fine, which is often only nominal; and it is to be regretted that such testimony of public censure is so seldom displayed, at least to-

wards the male offender. The speech of the plaintiff's counsel, Mr. Threipland, is justly praised by the editor as 'a lecture on the principles of social duty,' the circulation of which may be beneficial to society.—The evidence in this case proved the crime rather by inference than by direct facts: but it was sufficient to convince the court, who gave a verdict for the plaintiff, with damages 32,000 Rupees, about £4000 sterling. Very aggravated guilt certainly attached to the parties.

G. 2.

NOVELS.

Art. 28. *Fleetwood:* or the New Man of Feeling. By William Godwin. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. boards. R. Phillips.

We have here another instance of Mr. Godwin's ability in sketching situations and characters with a peculiar boldness of design, and in eliciting those reflections which assist us in dissecting and analysing the human heart. Fleetwood and Ruffigny are personages evidently drawn to exhibit the author's philosophy, and so far they are both worthy of notice: but the former, though laboured with most care, is not so happily delineated as the latter; nor, in the whole fable, is any part so interesting as the Episode which gives the history of Ruffigny. Though the novel professes to be a series of natural incidents, it is far from being of this character towards the conclusion; where the author seems to be embarrassed, and to have surrendered himself to the genius of romance and stage effect. In several instances, he represents Fleetwood, who in general appears to be a man of sound judgment, as acting like a perfect simpleton. It might be the author's object to shew by this character in what various ways man, even in his best state, "disquiets himself in vain;" and how, by the leven which insinuates itself into our mental composition, and by our intercourse with society, life becomes disturbed and acidulated. The moral tendency of this detail is unexceptionable; since it shews that, however vice may assume the attire of enjoyment, and the dissipation of the world may mislead us, innocence is the soul of pleasure, and goodness the corner stone of true excellence.

If the state of youth were not a state of natural drunkenness, to which the precepts of wisdom and the admonitions of experience are delivered in vain, we might expect that the delineation of the vicious part of Fleetwood's life would operate as a caution: but passion and madness will despise the lessons of reason; and though author follows author in proclaiming the depressing truth that "vanity of vanities, all is vanity," the rising generation will open their eyes on the world with the gayest visions of hope, and like their predecessors will insist on trying and judging for themselves.

Mon.

Art. 29. *The Count de Valmont:* or the Errors of Reason, translated from the French. 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. boards. Hatchard.

Novels having been employed in the dissemination of scepticism and infidelity, the original author of this work has been induced to use the same vehicle for the administration of their antidote. The plot, indeed, is not involved, nor are the incidents many and multifarious; and the letters are rather dissertations than narratives, in which

which the interesting topics of natural and revealed religion, &c. are amply discussed. From the cast of the characters, and the complexion of the arguments, we suppose the author to be a Catholic priest; who, under the signature of the Marquis, (to whom all parties make their confessions,) details a variety of opinions. In general, we object not to their substance, though we fear that they will tire by their [redacted]: but one of his sentiments is so extremely reprehensible, that we should be altogether false to our trust if we omitted to mark it with the most pointed condemnation. '*True religion*,' says the Marquis in one of his letters to the Count his son, '*is in its nature intolerant*; for truth being one and indivisible cannot be connected with what is in opposition to it.' This exploded popish fallacy we did not expect to find in a modern novel; especially in one which undertakes to expose 'the Errors of Reason;' for the worst error that ever infested the world is that which tends to cherish the spirit of persecution, which cannot be more directly fostered than by the above-mentioned sentiment of the Marquis. In the note, he farther developes his meaning; for while he with apparent candour declaims against 'bitter zeal and the spirit of persecution,' he artfully insinuates that as '*God cannot tolerate a false worship*,' so 'restraint and punishment, which are directed against it, cannot properly be termed persecution.'

prolixity

The amiable translator (we understand that we owe the English dress and abridgment of this novel to a young lady) was aware of the objections to which the Marquis's reasoning was liable, and has endeavoured to soften its tendency in a note: but her observations, though very liberal and honorable to her heart, do not reach the bottom of the mischief, since they do not detect the sophism of the Marquis; for the oneness of truth has nothing to do with the question, unless the Deity had appointed an individual to be an infallible judge of truth, and had put the sword into his hands to enforce it.

The fact is, that the religion of Jesus Christ is completely tolerant. It gives no individual nor body of men dominion over faith, but leaves every one to the free enjoyment of his own sentiments; and it strictly prohibits the use of external force or violence in its propagation or support. Under the Gospel, different forms of worship are allowable; yet every form, excepting that of his own church, the Marquis might be disposed to denominate 'false worship:' but that worship, in our estimation, cannot be false, in which the Deity, whether in St. Peter's or in St. Paul's, in the Kirk or in the Tabernacle, is adored in spirit and in truth. God forbid that our countrymen should adopt the narrow maxim of this supposed Marquis, that 'a religion which considers every other as allowable is not a religion:' an axiom, the admission of which must lead to the most serious consequences.

Our strictures reflect not in the smallest degree on the translator. She informs us that she has considerably abridged the original, where she found the sentiments not adapted to the protestant reader; and had she fully penetrated the design of her author, we are persuaded that we should have been relieved from the necessity of making

these remarks. Indeed, the part which belongs to this Lady is altogether creditable to her. In addition to a translation neatly executed, we find notes which manifest reading and taste; and had she drawn from the stores of her own mind, she would probably have produced a better novel than *Les Egaremens de la Raison.*

Mo.y.

POLITICS.

Art. 30. *An Address to the Public:* containing a Review of the Charges exhibited against Lord Viscount Melville, which led to the Resolutions of the House of Commons on the 8th of April 1805. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard.

As the case of Lord Melville is intended to undergo the most ample legal discussion, this pamphlet, we conceive, might have been spared: but, if his advocate was resolved to review the charges previously to their discussion in the supreme court of the nation, he should have contented himself with the most temperate statements. Inquiry into the conduct of men high in office should not be stigmatized as a matter of party; nor is it decorous in this writer to call Mr. Whitbread 'the Arch accuser.' Such is human nature, that the low will feel pleasure in the degradation of persons of rank and station: but the elevated, when virtue is their shield, may defy the shafts of envy and malignity. When, therefore, such a man as Lord M. is arraigned, we should only advert to the naked matter of fact, and, without stigmatizing his accuser, consider fairly the grounds of the accusation. We do not approve this writer's prefatory insinuations about a zeal for party; nor his intimations that charges, which originated in a Parliamentary Report, should be suspected of 'premeditated persecution.' That heavy responsibility, under which persons high in office profess to act, should secure Mr. Whitbread from all blame in the part which he has taken in the business respecting Lord Melville; as a member of the senate, he has only displayed that vigilance which the constitution required of him; and it is even extremely impolitic in a professed advocate of his lordship to prejudice the cause which he espouses, by reflections on the individual who for national purposes stands forwards as the public accuser, or to pretend to lament that the latter is 'hurried beyond the limits which his own integrity would prescribe.'

Conformably to the liberal spirit of English law, we presume Lord M.'s innocence; and may evidence prove it. We enter into his feelings during the cruel suspence; though we cannot allow, when we consider the rank of his judges, that he has any reason ultimately to fear the operation of vulgar ignorance and prejudice. If, as it is here asserted, 'the charges in the tenth report do not appear to be sufficiently authenticated,' the accused will have ground of triumph: but Mr. Pitt's motion for a *select* committee, to re-examine the report, is no proof that '*that* mind is worm-eaten with prejudice' which resisted the minister's proposal.

In pleading Lord M.'s innocence, this writer traverses the ground repeatedly occupied by parliament, and his strictures on the matter of the 10th report are ingenious; yet we must repeat that he diminishes their

their effect by suggesting that the real aim of the proceedings against his lordship was to 'impair the strength of administration.' We must admit, however, that this pamphlet manifests itself to be the production of no ordinary writer; and we have no reluctance in coinciding with his views, in hoping that this address will so far benefit Lord M. as to persuade the public against forming a pre-judgment. Moy.

Art. 31. *Second Report of the Committee for managing the Patriotic Fund*, established at Lloyd's Coffee-House 20th July 1803. 8vo. Boards. Not sold.

We mentioned the first report of this committee in onr number for October last, p. 214; and the contributors to this benevolent institution will be glad to receive a second statement of the manner in which their largesses have been distributed. The noble feelings of the country continue to pour the most copious streams into this reservoir of public benevolence; and we trust that there will be no reason for alleging that any part of its current has been mis-directed. May we intimate, however, that *magnificent vases*, &c. rather trench on the primary design of the fund, and perhaps on the proper powers of a body of individuals; and that disabled seamen and soldiers, and the relicts of such as have fallen, are the properest objects of its bounty? We were pleased to hear that the whole of the contributions on the thanksgiving day were restricted to this purpose. G.2.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 32. *A general History of Inland Navigation*, foreign and domestic: containing a complete Account of the Canals already executed in England; with Considerations on those projected. Abridged from the Quarto Edition, and continued to the present Time. By J. Phillips. 4th Edition. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Taylor, High-Holborn.

An account of Mr. Phillips's larger work on Inland Navigation was given in M. R. Vol. ix. N. S. p. 319. The present abridgment of it has been undertaken by the author in order more easily to accommodate that part of the agricultural and commercial community, to which the purchase of a quarto volume might be inconvenient. As a recommendation of this edition, he remarks that 'though much of the more unimportant part of my larger work has been omitted, yet many considerable additions and improvements have been made, and some errors have been corrected, and upon the whole I think it will be found as useful, and in some respects, even superior to the original publication.'

On the utility of inland navigation, especially for the conveyance of heavy articles, no observation is now requisite. We find that, since the year 1759, when the Duke of Bridgewater's canal was begun, 165 acts of parliament have been passed for making and perfecting canals. The particular history of the several artificial canals, which intersect our island, forms the substance of this amusing and instructive work; and among the projects, Mr. P. does not omit to notice the

the impracticable scheme of making a tunnel under the Thames from Gravesend to Tilbury.

We wish that Mr. P. had given with this abridgment the map of the canals in England, which embellishes the quarto volume.

Art. 33. *An Essay on the Construction, Hanging, and Fastening of Gates*; exemplified in Six Quarto Plates. Second Edition improved and enlarged. By Thomas N. Parker Esq. Large 8vo. pp. 116. 6s. Boards. Lackington and Co.

The first edition of this useful work was published in 1801, and noticed by us in M. R. Vol. xxxix. N S. p. 335. Since that period, its ingenious author has enabled himself to lecture yet more scientifically and correctly on the subject; and the present edition is a more enlarged and elegant publication, which we recommend to the attention of gentlemen and scientific agriculturists, *quibus studium arva tueri.* The unlettered farmer will not comprehend Mr Parker's mathematical illustrations, but he may derive benefit from the adoption of his maxims; and in this case implicit faith can do him no harm. Without the plates, it is impossible to exhibit this gentleman's principles to advantage: but we shall transcribe, from his chapter 'on the composition and resolution of forces, in determining the weight sustained by the hinges of gates,' the *general theorem* which was the result of various experiments.

'As the space between the two points of suspension is to the weight of the gate; so is the horizontal distance of the perpendicular line drawn through the gate's center of gravity, from the perpendicular line drawn through the two points of the gate's suspension, to the horizontal strain on either of the two hinges.'

Mr. Parker employs his last chapter in recommending the application of cast iron work for hanging and fastening gates; and this is a part of the pamphlet to which farmers should attend on the principle of economy.

Art. 34. *Thoughts on the Propriety of granting a pecuniary Remuneration to the West India Dock Directors*; with a View of the Situations of the Directors of the Bank of England, of the East India Company, and the Imperial Assurance Office, as far as they apply to that Proposition. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

This writer compares the case of the West India Dock Directors with those of the Directors of the several companies mentioned in the title page. The late advance of salary to the Directors of the Bank is not blamed, in itself considered, but is censured on account of the manner and time in which it was brought forwards: since it was proposed and carried, the author states, without previous notice, and at a meeting thinly attended: it also followed closely on the great loss which the Bank sustained through the fraud of an individual, and the carelessness of the Directors. He informs us that it has been in contemplation to reduce the number of the East India Directors from twenty-four to twelve, and to divide between the members thus reduced the amount of the present salaries, in order to make it worth the while of persons of superior qualifications to take a share in that most important charge.

The highest praise is bestowed by this writer on the members and objects of the Imperial Assurance Company; and similar commendation is bestowed on the Institution and Directors whom this pamphlet more immediately respects. He eloquently and dexterously applies the argument *ad verecundiam:* but the feelings of the city, it would seem, were not to be affected by it; for, if we are well informed, notwithstanding the recorded opinion of the Corporation of the Metropolis, the Directors have determined that the acceptance of the salaries which have been voted to them would not diminish their respectability, nor ill accord with the flattering circumstances which belong to the vast patronage which they enjoy. Jo.

Art. 35. *Lives of the Ancient Philosophers*; comprehending a Choice Selection of their best Maxims. Written for the Education of a Prince, by the Author of Telemachus. Translated from the French, illustrated with Notes, and preceded by a Life of Fenelon. By John Cormack, A. M. 12mo. 2 Vols. 8s. boards. Longman and Co.

Since the mind of Fenelon was imbued by the finest sayings of antient sages, who will presume to attempt a version of his renderings, to paint his exquisite phraseology, and to copy the inimitable elegance of his style? It must be a scholar at once profound and refined; a person who moves in the first circles of the capital, and who is ever listening to the happiest combinations of language, whether in conversation, in the speeches of eminent senators, or in the performances of first rate actors. A translator of these biographical sketches, in order to be successful, should unite to all these advantages a diligent study of the maxims which they contain, as they occur in the originals whence they have been drawn; and he should regard the versions of the admirable prelate as only helps and guides. The task has, however, been undertaken by a person of more humble pretensions; yet we shall not find fault with his adventurous spirit; since we are more inclined to thank him for recalling to our recollection the pleasure which we derived from the perusal of the fascinating original, and for doing that which, but for him, would most likely have remained long undone. His translation, if not executed with superior felicity, seems unimpeachable on the score of fidelity. Jo.

Art. 36. *A View of Modern France*, and British Traveller's Guide, from London to Paris, containing the most minute Information for Travellers, from the Moment of their intending to leave London, to their Arrival, and during their Stay in Paris; with Forms of Passports, and every necessary Instruction respecting them, &c. Illustrated with Maps and an Engraving. By David Morrice. Crown 8vo. 6s. Boards. Hatchard.

Had the intercourse between England and France remained uninterrupted by war, this view of Modern France would have proved highly useful to the generality of travellers, whom curiosity would have tempted to cross the water; since the minutest circumstances are detailed respecting passports, stages, packets, inns, baggage, lodgings, &c.: but, under *existing circumstances*, this species of information will excite little interest, for the obvious reason that it is

of

of no immediate use. Mr. Morrice will therefore now excuse us from making any extracts from his book, though we will do him the justice to own that, had peace continued, we should have esteemed it a duty to our readers to have transcribed several of his remarks.—We do not perceive the necessity of inserting, in a Traveller's Guide, an account of antient Gaul; and, since a *vade mecum* should be kept as small as possible for the purpose of convenient package, we advise Mr. Morrice (should he live to see "our bruised arms hung up for monuments") to omit this part of his work, and to accommodate the whole to the instruction of his countrymen: many of whom would be glad to save their money, if they knew how, and would feel grateful to a writer who condescended to those humble details which, if they make no figure in description, are of much practical utility. Mon.

Art. 37. *Recherches sur le tems le plus reculé de l'usage des Voûtes chez les Anciens.* Par M. L. Dutens. 8vo. 2s. De Boffe.

A conversation concerning the date at which Vaults or Domes were first used among the Antients gave rise to the present Essay. M. Dutens cites the tomb of the Scipios discovered in 1781, which he himself saw in the year following, and says:—*Il est composé d'une longue galerie en briques envoutée.*'—This single instance, without the aid of others, is sufficient to establish that Vaults were known before the age of Augustus: but the material question appears to us to be, did the antients know and practise the principle of vaulting; even granting that, in certain edifices, they exhibited the vault form? We believe that the Antients did employ this principle; and that arches (*Voûtes en berceau*) are to be found in the Temple of the Sun at Athens. The passage from Aristotle, adduced by M. Dutens, in our opinion, goes a considerable way towards establishing the same fact. R.W.

Art. 38. *A Vindication of the Celts,* from ancient Authorities; with Observations on Mr. Pinkerton's Hypothesis concerning the Origin of the European Nations, in his Modern Geography, and Dissertation on the Scythians or Goths. 8vo. pp. 172. 5s. Boards. Williams.

The work, to which these researches principally refer, escaped our notice at the time of its appearance; a circumstance which we cannot much regret, if it were the object of it to support the whimsical and extravagant paradoxes which are controverted in the present tract. Indeed, we are only surprized that any man of competent information should deem them worthy of serious animadversion. We collect from these pages, that the *author of the Dissertation* has amused himself with inventing distinctions which were altogether unknown to antiquity, viz. those of old and new Celts, German Gauls, and Germans. These, in the Dissertator's hands, became a species of machinery, by which he was able to recast history, to new-mould the characters of nations, and to give what aspects best pleased him to the antient world. He thus converted it into fairy land, of which the man of learning was as ignorant as the tyro who had just opened his Cellarius. The one was nearly as much a stranger as the other to the vast Scythic empire, which figured in Mr. Pinkerton's lucubrations; and which was there made to extend in the re-

motest antiquity from Hindostan to Egypt. As little was the scholar acquainted with Scythian eruptions, which preceded our æra by more than twenty centuries; and from Mr. P. he learned, for the first time, that this same people occupied Thrace, Illyrium, Greece, and Asia Minor, a thousand years before the same period, and possessed themselves of Italy and a great part of Gaul, five hundred years later. He heard, with some astonishment, that Scythia was blessed with a temperate and genial climate, and that it was inhabited by a prolific race. He was informed that, long before the birth of Christ, the same Scythians, having first peopled the eastern parts of our quarter of the globe, afterward possessed themselves exclusively of a large part of Gaul, and two thirds of our own island; and that the Saxon invaders found in Britain a kindred race, strongly resembling themselves in manners, and in language. He was taught that the Goths, who subverted the Roman empire, were the direct descendants of the antient Scythians of whom Herodotus speaks, and that the Greeks and Romans sprang from Scythian tribes. It was shewn to him that, by the side of a brave, estimable, and enlightened people, (Mr. P.'s German Gauls,) lived tribes the most stupid and abject of the human race, the antient Gauls or genuine Celts: and that the north-west of Gaul, and the Western and Northern shores of Britain, as also Ireland, had their surface encumbered by this refuse of humanity. He was moreover told to his no small surprise that the genuine Gauls never sacked Rome, over-ran Greece, nor made settlements in Asia Minor; that these expeditions were only visits which passed between relations, the Scytho-Gauls, and the Scytho-Romans and Scytho-Greeks. These, and such as these are the notable dicovereries for which the public was indebted to Mr. Pinkerton; which if we adopt, we must be content to receive the renderings of false versions and garbled quotations as authorities; and in the room of arguments, to accept misrepresentations which ignorance alone cannot excuse, and assertions which contradict the unanimous voice of antiquity, as well as the universal opinion of scholars.

As we have not taken notice of the work of Mr. Pinkerton, we do not deem it proper to extend our account of these animadversions on it. If there be persons who take delight in such precious disquisitions, we must refer them to the productions of the respective combatants. Investigations of this nature are at best little inviting: but, when conducted with bad faith, when blended with malignity, and when they indicate glaring defects in judgment, they form the most disgusting objects of any that present themselves in the vast field of literature. It is not to the Celtic vindicator, who has conducted himself with exemplary temper, that we would be understood to apply these remarks: but to the Caledonian reviler of the antient population of Europe; who, if the general notion with respect to the Celts be just, and if resemblance as to characteristic qualities may be received as evidence of affinity, must be concluded to bear in his veins no small portion of the blood of a people, his hatred of whom rises to absolute frenzy. It will be in vain for him, while his invectives are recollected, to disclaim his alliance with the race that is the object of them, and of which it has been said that

" *prona furori*
Corda calent, subitaque ignescunt pectora bile;
Cum digitis, credas animos quoque sulphure tinctos." If

If we might be allowed to indulge a conjecture as to the other tribe which lent its aid to the formation of the irritable antiquary, we should conclude it to be that which is described as.

"*Gens ratione furens, & mentem pasta chimæris.*" Jo.

THANKSGIVING SERMONS, *Dec.* 5.

Art. 39. *Victory considered as an Incentive to Piety, Temperance, and Charity.* Preached in the Parish Church of Tewkesbury. By the Rev. Robert Knight, M.A., Vicar of Tewksbury. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co.

With a mind alive to the horrors which war brings in its train, Mr. K. hopes that it has not been waged but as a dire necessity; and if it must be classed among those "Offences which *must* come" on nations, he justly remarks that a Victory which secures us from havoc and desolation cannot be contemplated with too much gratitude. Yet he exhorts to no intemperate expressions of unhallowed joy, but drops a tear on the tomb of the hero of Trafalgar, and successfully * pleads in behalf of those who were made widows and orphans by the carnage attendant on our late naval triumph. Mo.y.

Art. 40. Preached on the Day of Thanksgiving, for the Victory of Trafalgar. By the Rev. James Moore, LL.B., &c. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

Continental disasters are represented by Mr. Moore as counterbalanced by that success which is the subject of public thanksgiving. With the generality of divines, he flatters us with the assurance that we are "strong in the Lord;" and that we may look forwards with confidence to the issue of the contest: but, as benefits conferred demand obedience in return, he inforces the obligations of morality, calls on a victorious nation to be generous to her defenders, and humanely hopes that the blood, which has been shed, will speedily lead to peace. Do.

Art. 41. Preached at the Great Synagogue, Duke's Place, on the 14 Kislav, (A.M.) 5565, answering to Thursday 5th December, 1805. By the Rev. Solomon Hirschel, President Rabbi (erroneously styled the High Priest) of the German Jews in London. Arranged and rendered into English by a Friend. 4to. 1s. 6d. Richardsons.

Christians cannot object to the sentiments contained in this Jewish sermon, since they are those of humanity and good will to man. Mr. Hirschel observes that 'in thanksgivings we are grateful for our escape and future preservation from the machinations of our enemies; but not in the spirit of malicious triumph over the destruction of our fellow-creatures, which ought not to be the final cause of war.' He zealously asserts the doctrine of a providence, exhorts his hearers to seek the divine favour by a life of virtue, and, while they supplicate the Almighty for his aid in a just cause, to be prepared at all points against the enemy.—The Rabbi laments that the sins of the Jews have deprived them of *miraculous* displays of divine power for their protection. Do.

Art. 42. *The Sword of the Lord, and of Britain*;—preached at Peckham, in Surrey. By William Bengo Collyer. 8vo. 1s. Conder.

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* The collection after the sermon was 89l. 3s. 1½d.

This

This preacher feels great satisfaction in comparing the state of this country with that of such kingdoms on the continent as have been desolated by war; aud he tells us that 'as were the Israelites of old, so is Great Britain chosen, "not because we are more in number than any other people, but because the Lord loved us."—Perhaps this kind of assertion manifests a degree of presumption. Is it not arrogating too much to ourselves?—As human exertion must be combined with a trust in God, and as we are not (any more than the Jews) permitted to expect miracles, Mr. C. maintains the lawfulness of self-defence, and, when the conflict is decided in our favour, the propriety of pious gratitude, decently expressed. The sermon concludes with a particular address in behalf of the Patriotic Fund. Do

Art. 43. *Preached to the Society who support the Sunday Evening Lecture in the Old Jewry;* &c. By the Rev. John Edwards. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

That the great and wide sea, which separates though it yet connects nations, is the Lord's; that he can give the empire of it to whomsoever he pleases; that in modern times he has conferred it on Great Britain, and by the late victory has confirmed to us this dominion, are the leading ideas of Mr. Edwards's discourse, from Ps xcv. 5. By this boon he considers the "ships, colonies, and commerce," of which our enemy confesses himself to be in want, as secured to us; and invasion as for the present at least prevented. Victory, however, having been accomplished by the loss of the gallant Nelson, she is represented by the preacher as rejoicing with one eye and deploring with the other. Do

Art. 44. *Imperium Pelagi.*—Preached at Cirencester. By the Rev. John Bulman, Chaplain to General Phillipson's late Regiment of 20th Light Dragoons. 4to 1s. Robinson.

From the title of this pamphlet, we might have been led to expect a poem, but we find only a preachment—a preachment, however, of which the author needs not be ashamed. Mr. Bulman, as a politico theological declaimer, has displayed some ingenuity in the view which he takes of our own situation and of that of the enemy. If we obtain a victory by sea, it is a positive blessing of Providence; if the enemy have acquired a counterbalancing advantage by land, we are to remember that wicked tyrants and oppressors are employed by the Almighty, in the same manner as he uses the plague, pestilence, and famine, to execute his purposes; and that therefore success on the part of the foe can never be esteemed as a mark of the divine vour. By thus touching politics with what the preacher calls 'the spear of revelation,' he endeavours to convince his hearers that every thing is for the best; and his doctrine is so comfortable, that we will not try it by the rules of logic. Do

Art. 45. *The true Basis of National Confidence in Seasons of Distress*—preached in the Parish Church of St. James's, Bristol. By the Rev. Thomas T. Biddulph, A.M., Minister of the said Church, &c. 8vo. 1s. Printed at Bristol.

After having entered a serious protest against carnal confidence, Mr. B. exhorts to a pious trust in God; and while we appreciate the value and importance of the victory of Trafalgar, he urges us to remember

member the name of the Lord our God; "to praise him for all that is past; and to trust him for all that's to come."

Mr. B.'s inducement to the publication of this sermon was to add, by the profit arising from its sale, a mite to the Patriotic Fund. Mo.y.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 46. *A brief and impartial View of the Two most generally received Theories of the Fall of Man, and its Consequences.* Preached at Doncaster, April 21, 1805. By the Rev. P. Inchbald, A.B. late of University College, Oxford; to which are added, Explanatory Notes, and References to the most eminent Divines who have written upon that Subject. 4to. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

As an historian of the two opinions here given, Mr. I. has executed his office with as much candour and impartiality as could be expected. The Calvinist cannot say that he has mis-stated his view of the subject; yet he must perceive that the preacher inclined to the milder and less revolting account given in the last of the theories stated in this sermon. If the unscriptural term "Original Sin" is to be explained, as Dr. Clarke would have it, to mean only the *first introducing* of sin, it does not include the idea, as some divines maintain, of our sinning *in* Adam, and of the transmission of guilt to all his posterity; so that such an event as the fall might have happened without "its tainting us to the very core with sin," according to Mr. Wilberforce. Whatever theory of the fall be adopted by Christians, this preacher hopes that it will produce in them resignation, humility, and prayer for divine assistance and grace through the Gospel. D.

Art. 47. Preached in the Parish Church of St. Mary, Bedford, November 10, 1805, on the Death of the late Lord Viscount Nelson. By Charles Abbot, D. D. &c. 8vo. 1s. Printed at Bedford.

D. Abbot calls on the patriot to suspend his harp on a new species of willow, 'the willow of gratitude,' for the death of our illustrious hero. We applaud his warm expressions of sorrow on this occasion, but we trust that the death of Lord Nelson, in the arms of victory, does not 'threaten the naval prosperity of the country.' At Portsmouth, the declamatory parts of this discourse would have been more appropriate than at Bedford; but there, we are persuaded, the above sentiment would not be cherished. D.o

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CORRESPONDENCE.

'*A Constant Reader*', who dates from Ipswich, is intitled to our thanks, for his communication: but we do not know that we shall be able to make use of it, since the work in question does not absolutely require our notice.

W. H. must perceive that the insertion of his letter would draw us into a controversy, in a manner which is inconsistent with the nature of our work. If he wishes it to be returned, and will give us his address, it shall be duly forwarded.

*** The APPENDIX to Vol XLVIII. of the M.R. is published with this Number.

Errors. p. 43, 71, 72, 75, 78, 83, 91, 103.